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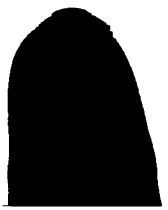

A

Complete and Impartial

HISTORY

OF THE

RISE, PROGRESS, & TERMINATION

OF THE

LATE WAR,

Which commenced in the Year 1791.

to which is prefixed

A Brief Sketch of the French Revolution.

embellished with Engravings.

BY A SOCIETY OF LITERARY GENTLEMEN.

Newcastle upon Tyne.

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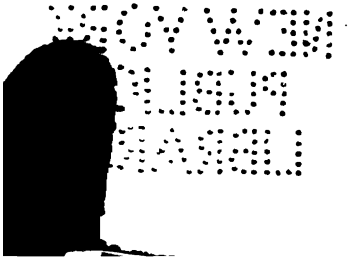

HISTORY

OF THE

LATE WAR.

TO maintain an even temper and an unperverted mind amidſt the agitations of faction; to mark with keenneſs, and record with preciſion, the errors of all parties, without imbibing the ſpirit or violence of any; ſuch is the duty, and ought to be the character, of thoſe who undertake to digeſt a narrative of recent events. But it is a duty which the paſſions and infirmities of our nature render difficult of accompliſhment; a duty againſt which prejudice too commonly revolts, and which intereſt ſometimes will even prompt men to betray. The difficulties which the annaliſt of his own times has to encounter, do not all, however, originate with himſelf, nor are they always within the limits of his controul. If he writes as a man, it muſt not be forgotten that he writes to men. If he has paſſions and failings, it muſt not be ſuppoſed that his readers are exempt from their ſhare. That candour which they expect from him, they are not always prepared to concede in their turn; nor, while they are ready to detect his errors, are they always conſcious of the prejudices which exiſt within their own boſoms. With theſe diſadvantages, while it is the indiſpenſable duty

of the writer to adhere inflexibly to fact, by that criterion let him alſo be judged. Facts, if miſrepreſented, will not eſcape detection; and reflections or obſervations which do not flow naturally from the events as they are recorded, and which are not ſupported by their evidences, can never make a permanent impreſſion.

We have ever proteſted againſt the pernicious doctrine, that the faithful hiſtorian is bound in duty to ſpeak in terms of lenity of political vices, or of flagrant miſconduct. General panegyric is not impartiality; and the writer who adopts the maxim that where blame is incurred it is not to be noticed, is not merely uſeleſs —he is vicious. If he wrongfully accuſes, he is then deſerving of cenſure. If his inferences are unſupported by his documents, if his allegations ſhould prove to be founded only on the uncertain baſis of conjecture, he is worthy of contempt. But if his information is corroborated by authentic teſtimony, if his predictions are confirmed by ſubſequent experience, he evinces then that he has not been inattentive to his duty; and however his remarks may outrage our prejudices, he is ſtill deſerving of ſome credit; and the leaſt that can be accorded is a patient hearing.

The candid and impartial reader can eaſily diſcern, that in the preceding volume of this work, we have, in our narrative of public events, obſerved that impartiality that ſhould diſcriminate genuine hiſtory from the extremes of ill-informed detail, on the one hand, and of prejudice and bold aſſertion, on the other.

But we bluſh not to maintain, that our ſentiments were, and ſtill are hoſtile to that recourſe which the adminiſtration had to a war with the French republic, at once unneceſſary and ruinous in its extenſive effects through the different quarters of the globe. When the reader is requeſted to turn over the hiſtoric page to the accounts recorded of the American war and its diſmal conſequences, he will at one view diſcover, that the expences of that ruinous conteſt, diminiſh almoſt to a cypher

cypher in compariſon with the prodigality of modern times. We have ſeen new taxes levied in the courſe of *one year*, greatly exceeding the whole charge created by the firſt ſix years of the American war.

We have ſeen impoſitions laid upon the people of England, in a *ſingle day*, nearly equal to the whole charge of Lord Chatham's glorious war, which laſted for ſeven years, and in which the Britiſh arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe; nay, we have ſeen the charges incurred by the expenditure of only *four years*, exceeding the total charge of the whole national debt, antecedent to 1782!

Yet to that criſis, which was the fatal origin of calamities ſo afflicting to ſuffering humanity, it is neceſſary once more to recur. Our obſervations, however, ſhall be ſhort. At the criſis alluded to, the proſperity of Britain was unexampled; her commerce was extended over the whole face of the ocean; the trade of the univerſe was in her graſp. Her manufactures pervaded every country; and if there was a complaint, it was for lack of hands to conduct them with ſufficient diſpatch. By following the ſuggeſtions of that excellent patriot and incomparable financier, the late amiable Dr. Price, the miniſter, (though of three plans preſented, he adopted the worſt) had, according to his own calculations, liquidated near 20,000,000 of the national debt. In this proſperous ſtate of things, what fatal infanity could engage our rulers to plunge the nation afreſh in the ruinous vortex of continental warfare? The motives to this hour remain enveloped in myſtery and darkneſs.

With ignorance, heightened by inſult upon experience and common ſenſe, it was held out that foreign war was neceſſary to preſerve us from domeſtic conteſts.—It is the firſt time, we believe, that peace and proſperity were ever conſidered as favourable to inſurrection and rebellion; and war, taxes, and miſery, as ſovereign antidotes againſt the malignant effects of faction. On the contrary to this ill-founded poſition, the

whole nation had riſen as one man on the mere alarm of innovation, and had ſolemnly aſſociated to protect the conſtitution even with its abuſes, rather than ſubject a particle of it to political experiment or change. At this critical moment too, the French republic, under the agency of M. Chauvelin, threw itſelf at the feet and at the mercy of the Britiſh cabinet, but the ſupplicating envoy was ſpurned away with inſolence and contempt. That miniſter was actually authoriſed, and M. Maret expreſsly diſpatched, to offer to the Britiſh cabinet *their choice* of the French poſſeſſions in both Eaſt and Weſt Indies, as the price of neutrality; and a certain ſecretary of ſtate made this memorable reply, "That we had already colonies enough, and that we did not want to be burthened with any more." What the object of the war then was, has never been aſcertained.

The year 1795 terminated with little that was conſolatory abroad, and with a general and torpid deſpondency at home, as far as reſpected public affairs. The meeting of parliament was fixed at a period unuſually early, the latter end of October; and, previous to its aſſembling, ſome meetings were held by the London Correſponding Society for the avowed purpoſe of petitioning the King and parliament in favour of peace and reform. As the meetings were held in the open fields, they were numerouſly attended, as we have formerly noticed: and as the great majority of the people who compoſed theſe meetings were certainly not members of that aſſociation, and were influenced by no other motive than curioſity, when that paſſion of the moment was gratified, they peaceably diſperſed.

A dreadful and oppreſſive ſcarcity at this criſis pervaded the kingdom. Several inſtances occurred of perſons who periſhed through abſolute want, and the unoffending poor, deſpairing and deſperate. To the calamities of war, and to the miſconduct of miniſters, all the miſery under which the nation groaned was (perhaps raſhly) attributed. From theſe circumſtances we

we muſt account for the daring and deteſtable inſults and outrages which were offered to his Majeſty on his way to and from the houſe of Lords, on the 29th of October. An effort was made by the adherents of miniſtry to connect theſe outrages with the meetings which had been previouſly held by the Correſponding Society: while on the other hand, their advocates retorted the accuſation, and aſcribed them to the emiſſaries of the miniſter.

His Majeſty proceeded from the palace to open the ſeſſion of parliament, at the uſual hour, between two and three o'clock; and the crowd in St. James's Park was unuſually great, amounting to at leaſt 150,000 perſons. A fine day, and a rumour which had been circulated, that a riot was likely to happen, encreaſed the number of the ſpectators.

As the royal carriage paſſed along the park, the predominant exclamations were, "Peace! Peace!—Give us bread!—No Pitt!—No famine!—No war!" A few voices were heard to exclaim, "Down with George!" or words to that effect. In the park, and in the ſtreets adjacent to Weſtminſter Hall, ſome ſtones and other miſſiles were thrown, nine of which, it is aſſerted, ſtruck the ſtate coach; and one of them, which was ſuſpected to have proceeded from a window in Margaret Street, near the Abbey, perforated one of the windows by a ſmall circular aperture; and from theſe circumſtances it was ſuppoſed by ſome to have been a bullet diſcharged from an air-gun, or from ſome ſimilar engine of deſtruction; but no bullet was found; and whatever it was, it neither touched the King, nor the Lords who attended him.

The Correſponding Society were charged as being the cauſe or abettors of this outrage, while their friends retorted the charge on the miniſterial agents.—They obſerve, that according to the unguarded admiſſion of Mr. Secretary Dundas, the bills which were immediately, upon this event, introduced into parliament, for reſtricting the liberty of the preſs, and for preventing

publi-

public meetings, had been in the contemplation of miniſters ever ſince the failure of the proſecution of Hardy, &c. and that a favourable opportunity was only wanting to bring them forth.

They remark further, as a moſt extraordinary and unprecedented fact, that not one of thoſe who threw the ſtones, or otherwiſe attacked the King, was brought to juſtice, though a reward of *one thouſand* pounds was offered. Theſe mutual recriminations we only ſtate to ſhew the violences and artifices of the party; for, from various circumſtances, we are of opinion that the pretended conſpiracy had no exiſtence, and that the whole was a ſudden ebullition of popular fury, exaſperated by the miſfortunes of the war, and the excruciating preſſures of famine.

As his Majeſty returned from the houſe through the park, though the gates of the Horſe Guards were ſhut to exclude the mob, yet even this precaution was inſufficient to prevent a renewal of the outrages; and another ſtone was thrown at the carriage as it paſſed oppoſite to Spring Garden terrace.

After the King had alighted at St. James's, the populace attacked the ſtate carriage, and in its way through Pall Mall to the Mews, it was almoſt entirely demoliſhed.

It was a ſingular circumſtance, that his Majeſty was permitted to return from the houſe of Lords without any additional guard or eſcort. The hoſtile diſpoſitions evinced by the populace, ought certainly to have induced the miniſters to have taken ſome precaution, had they been equally attentive to the ſafety of the perſon of their ſovereign, as they were to that of their own. No friend of monarchy, no man who admires and reveres the private virtues of his ſovereign, could reflect without indignation, that the ſame miniſters who did not dare to venture their own perſons in the city, on a public feſtival without a large military eſcort, ſaw with criminal unconcern, their protector and their King, return from St. James's amidſt a miſguided and enraged populace,

populace, with no other protection or attendant than two footmen behind his private carriage.

In this unprotected ſtate, as ſoon as the carraige had turned out of the paved paſſage that leads from the garden gate, the horſe-path under the garden wall was found filled with people, who obſtructed the paſſage for a ſhort time, and in a moſt daring manner inſulted his Majeſty. Fortunately ſome of the life-guards men, who were mounted as returning from duty to the Horſe-Guards, being informed of the circumſtances, rode back and relieved the King from this new danger and perplexity.

During the whole of the day, it was obſerved that he appeared more deeply affected by the melancholy clamours with which he was aſſailed, than by the coarſe and unworthy indignities which were offered to his perſon. On his return, when the carriage was ſtopped, he diſcovered evident ſigns of agitation. His face was flushed, his eyes were momentarily turned from ſide to ſide, and his manner evinced the utmoſt perturbation. Upon his return to the palace, he ſaid with ſtrong emotion to his family, who had been alarmed in the extreme for his ſafety, and by whom he is tenderly and juſtly beloved, "I have been extremely, though undeſervedly, ill-uſed."

Four witneſſes of what paſſed in the courſe of the day, viz. Mr. Walford, of Pall Mall, Mr. Stockdale, of Picadilly, one of his Majeſty's footmen, and Kennedy, belonging to the office of Police, in Bow-ſtreet, were ſeverally examined at the bar of the houſe of Lords, on the evening of the 29th; and a copy of the minutes of the evidence was communicated to the houſe of Commons the following day.

The evidence exhibited on this occaſion went only to criminate a man of the name of Kidd Wake, and three other perſons, who were apprehended on the occaſion, but who appeared to have been no further guilty than in hiſſing and hallooing, and making uſe of ſome indecent and ſeditious expreſſions.

On

On the 31ſt of October, a proclamation was iſſued offering a reward of 1000l. to any perſon or perſons, other than thoſe actually concerned in doing any act by which his Majeſty's royal perſon was immediately endangered, who ſhould give information ſo that any of the authors or abettors in that outrage might be apprehended, and brought to juſtice.

On the 4th day of November, another proclamation was iſſued. It announced, that immediately before the opening of the preſent ſeſſion of parliament, a great number of perſons were collected in the fields, adjacent to the metropolis, by advertiſements and hand-bills, and that divers inflammatory diſcourſes were delivered to the perſons ſo collected, and divers proceedings were had, tending to create groundleſs jealouſy and diſcontent, and to endanger the public peace; and that ſuch proceedings were followed, on the day on which the ſeſſion of parliament commenced, by acts of tumult and violence, and by daring and criminal outrages, to the immediate danger of his Majeſty's perſon. And further, that uneaſineſs and anxiety had been raiſed in the minds of his Majeſty's faithful ſubjects, by rumours and apprehenſions that ſeditious and unlawful aſſemblies were intended to be held by evil-diſpoſed perſons; that it was therefore thought fit to enjoin and require all juſtices of the peace, ſheriffs, and all well-diſpoſed perſons throughout the kingdom, to uſe their utmoſt diligence to diſcourage, prevent, and ſuppreſs, all ſeditious and unlawful aſſemblies, and the diſtribution of all ſeditious papers and publications.

By theſe ſteps taken by adminiſtration, the public mind was gradually prepared for a moſt important innovation on the Britiſh conſtitution; an innovation, which had it been carried to that extent that miniſters at firſt intended, would have laid the Bill of Rights, and Magna Charta itſelf, proſtrate in the duſt; and would have nearly eſtabliſhed a military deſpotiſm in the place of thoſe laws and cuſtoms which have long been

been dear to Engliſhmen; thoſe laws and liberties for which our anceſtors cheerfully ſhed their blood; to preſerve which, the unfortunate houſe of Stuart was expelled from the throne of their anceſtors; and to defend which, the ſceptre of theſe kingdoms was placed in the hands of the Elector of Hanover.

It will eaſily be perceived that we allude to two bills which were at this criſis introduced into parliament, by Lord Grenville and Mr. Pitt, and which were paſſed into laws, after vigorous debates, in the month of December, 1795. The one was entitled, "An Act for the ſafety and preſervation of his Majeſty's Perſon and Government againſt Treaſonable and Seditious Practices and Attempts." And the other, "An Act for the more effectually preventing Seditious Meetings and Aſſemblies."

Notwithſtanding the outrages which had taken place during his Majeſty's progreſs to the houſe, the ſeſſion of parliament was regularly opened in the uſual way, by a ſpeech from the throne; but that ceremony was no ſooner concluded, than the bar of the houſe of Peers was abruptly ordered to be cleared, and their Lordſhips went into a committee of privileges in conſequence of the circumſtances which had attended his Majeſty's coming to the houſe. Their Lordſhips having firſt ordered his Majeſty's ſpeech to be taken into conſideration the following day, Lord Grenville ſtated, that his Majeſty had been groſsly inſulted in his way to the houſe, his ſtate coach damaged, and an aſſault attempted on his royal perſon.

The Earl of Weſtmoreland, maſter of the horſe, ſtated to the houſe the particulars of the inſult and outrage, as far as they had fallen within his knowledge; and Lord Onſlow, a Lord of the bed-chamber, confirmed Lord Weſtmoreland's report.

The journals of the houſe having been conſulted for precedents, an addreſs was propoſed; and this was to be followed by a conference with the other houſe, to deſire their concurrence in the meaſure. After a ſhort

converſation among ſeveral of the Peers, the Marquiſs of Lanſdowne animadverted with ſeverity and acrimony on the conduct of miniſters, whom he diſcredited and reprobated on this occaſion. He believed on his part that it was no more than the counter-part of *their own plot*; the alarm-bell to terrify the people into weak compliances, that miniſters might continue in power, a power which drew the conſtitution into their own hands, and which he could not conſider as ſafely lodged while in their poſſeſſion.

On the 4th of November, copies of the proclamation iſſued by his majeſty relative to the outrages committed againſt his perſon on the 29th of October, and of the proclamation afterwards publiſhed relative to ſeditious meetings, were ſubmitted to the houſe of Peers by Lord Mansfield, as chief manager for the lords, and were ordered to lie on the table.

Lord Grenville gave notice on the ſame day that he would bring forward a bill for better ſecuring the ſafety of his Majeſty's perſon and government, when the proclamation would come to be diſcuſſed, and moved that their Lordſhips be ſummoned to attend upon that day.

On the 6th of November, Lord Grenville, in purſuance of his notice given on the 4th, moved the order of the day, which was that his Majeſty's proclamation ſhould be read. His Lordſhip conceived thoſe proclamations to be the ground work of the bill which he propoſed that day to ſubmit to the conſideration of the houſe. The late violent attack upon the perſon of his Majeſty demanded ſome neceſſary meaſures for the prevention of ſimilar abuſes; and that attack he ſuſpected to have been made in conſequence of the licentious aſſemblies and proceedings which had of late been ſuffered without any notice and reſtriction. The treaſonable and ſeditious ſpeeches and writings which had latterly been ſo aſſiduouſly diſſeminated at public meetings, together with the numbers of libels otherwiſe circulated, were ſo general and notorious, as

public

moſt particularly called for the interference of parliament. He, as a ſervant of his Majeſty, and a member of that houſe, viewed it as his duty to remonſtrate againſt them and endeavour to check their ſeditious tendency. He obſerved, that, whatever variation there might be in the bill he had to propoſe from the precedents of former times, he aſſured their Lordſhips that they would be found only to vary ſo far as the peculiar forms of exiſting circumſtances required. The precedents to which he referred were thoſe in the reign of Elizabeth, and at the commencement of the reign of Charles II. acts paſſed in *approved times*, and applied to circumſtances by no means diſſimilar to thoſe of the preſent day. He doubted not but their Lordſhips would agree with him in the neceſſity there was of applying a ſpeedy remedy to thoſe dangerous practices, which had proceeded ſo far as to endanger the monarchy, or even the life and ſafety of our preſent ſovereign. On theſe grounds he preſented a bill entitled, "An Act for the Safety and Preſervation of his Majeſty's Perſon and Government, againſt Treaſonable and Seditious Practices and Attempts;" which being read a firſt time, he moved that it ſhould be printed, and the Lords be ſummoned for the ſecond reading on the Tueſday following.

But as the polity of Britain is not the immediate ſubject of our hiſtory, we will not tire our readers with detailed accounts of the ſpeeches which this bill occaſioned in both houſes of Parliament. At the ſame time we would juſtly expoſe ourſelves to blame, did we altogether paſs them over in ſilence. We ſhall therefore give the out-lines of ſome of the moſt important and ſtriking.

The Earl of Lauderdale ſaid, that, when he ſaw the proclamation which had juſt been read, his mind was filled with an equal degree of ſurpriſe and anxiety—That he conceived from high authority, that the nation might reſt ſatisfied, that one of the great objects of the

war was completely fulfilled, and that the dread and alarm which had any where exiſted, was quieted, by the ſalutary effects of the proclamation of 1792, and the ſubſequent meaſures which miniſters had adopted. But his aſtoniſhment was greatly excited by the peruſal of the proclamation now read, and ſtill more ſo, at finding a bill introduced from the ſame quarter, and grounded upon that proclamation. This meaſure appeared to him a direct contradiction to the high authority he had juſt alluded to, and proved, that now it would be abſurd to ſuppoſe government had ſucceeded in obtaining one of the greateſt objects of the war; for they now came forward with a meaſure ten times ſtronger and more dangerous to the liberties of the country, than they had hitherto dared to do, even at the moment of their greateſt and moſt avowed alarm.

His Lordſhip contended, that, by the bill then introduced, a variety of new crimes and new treaſons would be added to the criminal code of this country; and it would effect a total alteration of the laws reſpecting treaſon, and a moſt dangerous innovation on the conſtitution.—He contended that there was not the ſlighteſt connection between the meetings at Iſlington, &c. and the outrage on his Majeſty.——That the old conſtitution of France had nothing more deſpotic or hoſtile to the liberties of the people than the bill propoſed.—That the fact appeared to him to be, that miniſters having involved the country in a ruinous and deſtructive war, they then had recourſe to extraordinary and unheard-of meaſures; meaſures which, if carried into a law, would annihilate every liberty and privilege which Engliſhmen then enjoyed.—The bill, he maintained, was not brought in to check a ſpecific or immediate danger, but as a permanent alteration of the criminal law of this country; for it was to continue during the life of the King, and even afterwards.—Lord Lauderdale concluded a very able and animated ſpeech, by pronouncing the bill then before their Lordſhips to be

"one

"one of the ſevereſt, and moſt dangerous to the rights and liberties of the people, that had ever been introduced into parliament."

Lord Grenville, in oppoſition to the Earl of Lauderdale, obſerved, that miniſters had not ſaid that all diſcontent and deſign againſt the government of this country was done away; or that all ſeditious practices were at an end. This was not the ſpirit or the meaning of his noble friend on the woolſack—nor was it true that miniſters had at any time aſſerted that there was a general ſpirit of diſloyalty or diſaffection in this country; ſo far from this, he had the glory of ſaying, there was almoſt an univerſal ſpirit of loyalty in the nation. He denied that miniſters had brought on this war—the votes of their Lordſhips declared the contrary. With reſpect to the proviſions of the bill, when they came to be argued, he ſhould prove his aſſertions on the neceſſity of the meaſure. He ſhould prove that it did not, in the ſmalleſt degree, interfere with the right of the people to meet in legal and peaceable aſſemblies. None could be made to ſuffer by it, but thoſe who knew their conduct and intentions were wicked.

The Duke of Bedford followed the ſame arguments uſed by Lord Lauderdale, and ſaid he would take the firſt opportunity to expreſs his ſentiments on the bill.

On the 10th of November, Lord Grenville moved the order of the day, for the ſecond reading of the bill to protect his Majeſty's perſon, &c.

The bill, he ſaid, might be divided into two parts; the firſt for the protection of his Majeſty's perſon, the other for the purpoſe of puniſhing treaſonable crimes againſt the ſtate. On the firſt, he preſumed there would be but one opinion; and on the ſecond, he aſſerted, that there were no puniſhments for crimes that were not already acknowledged to be ſuch by the exiſting laws, excepting that it was intended, by the preſent bill, to include treaſonable publications and diſcourſes, as equally criminal and dangerous with the acts ſtated to be treaſon by the laws then in force, &c.

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The Duke of Bedford, in a lucid and argumentative ſpeech, reprobated the bill as fraught with danger to the liberty of the ſubject.—His Grace, among other ſevere ſtrictures, made ſome pointed obſervations upon the *good times* from which Lord Grenville had taken his precedents in ſupport of the bill. He never thought that the noble Lord had ſo far forgotten what he, and the nation owed to thoſe who had brought about the revolution, as to ſpeak of the reigns of Elizabeth, and Charles II. as models for example, or furniſhing precedents for government to act upon in the preſent day ——In Elizabeth's time, thoſe laws were chiefly directed againſt bulls iſſued by the pope, and when the country was in a very diſtracted ſtate, both from foreign and domeſtic foes; and in Charles the Second's reign, thoſe meaſures were adopted when he was juſt reſtored after twenty years abſence, and were deemed abſolutely neceſſary for his protection.

Lord Lauderdale made a long and able ſpeech againſt the bill, and concluded by obſerving, that however diſpleaſing it might be to ſome of their Lordſhips to hear it, he was juſtified by great and known authorities in ſaying, that times and circumſtances might be ſuch, as not only to juſtify, but to make reſiſtance become a duty.

Lord Mansfield expreſſed a very different opinion of the bill.—In the reign of Charles II. he ſaid, much of the leaven of republicaniſm remained. There were alſo fifth-monarchy men, who indeed differed from the republicans of the preſent day, who wiſhed for no King, as they adhered to the idea of a King of a certain deſcription. Lord Mansfield concluded with ſome compliments to the known humanity and fortitude of his Majeſty.

After ſeveral obſervations from the Dukes of Bedford and Norfolk, the queſtion was then put, and the houſe divided: Contents, 56.—Non-contents, 7.

In the houſe of Commons, on the ſame day, (November 10) the chancellor of the exchequer moved the order

order of the day for taking into conſideration his Majeſty's proclamations of October 31ſt and November 4th, 1795.

Mr. Pitt painted in glowing colours the ſtrong impreſſions which the criminal and outrageous inſult committed upon his Majeſty's perſon, on the firſt day of the ſeſſion, had made upon the minds of all his ſubjects, and remarked, that theſe outrages proceeded from circumſtances upon which he meant to ground the proceedings of that night—if the houſe meant not to do their buſineſs by halves, and that ſuch enormities ſhould be totally averted, they ſhould adopt ſome means to prevent thoſe ſeditious aſſemblies, which ſerved as vehicles to faction and diſloyalty, which fanned and kept alive the flame of diſſatisfaction, and filled the minds of the people with diſcontent—the meetings to which he alluded were of two deſcriptions. The firſt under the pretext of petitioning parliament for rights of which they affected to be deprived, agitated queſtions, and promulgated opinions, hoſtile to the exiſting government, and tending to bring it into diſrepute with the people. The other deſcription, though leſs numerous, not leſs public, nor leſs dangerous, was concerted evidently for the purpoſe of diſſeminating unjuſt grounds of jealouſy and diſcontent, and of encouraging the people to acts of even treaſon itſelf. Both theſe required ſome ſtrong law to prevent them.

No man, he ſaid, would deny the right of the people to expreſs their opinions on political men and meaſures, and to diſcuſs and aſſert their right of petitioning all the branches of the legiſlature; but it was the duty of the houſe to prevent theſe privileges from being made a pretext for ſubverting the eſtabliſhed government of the country. He confeſſed, however, that it was neceſſary to proceed with caution in this buſineſs, leſt, on the one hand, they ſhould encroach on the people, or, on the other, ſuffer the abuſe of thoſe rights to become the inſtrument of their total extinction—

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the real queſtion now before the houſe was, "did not the preſſure of the moment call for ſome remedy?"

Mr. Pitt then went on to ſhew the neceſſity of extending the power of the civil magiſtrate to diſperſe public meetings, public lectures, &c. and moved for leave to be given to bring in a bill "for more effectually preventing ſeditious meetings and aſſemblies."

Mr. Fox, after expreſſing a juſt horror at the attempt which had been made againſt his Majeſty, while he could not reſtrain his indignation at what had happened, even on that day, but this ſenſation was exceeded by what he had heard that night.—After ſome ſarcaſtic obſervations reſpecting "Mansfield's Act," he broke out into an exclamation, "Behold (ſaid he) the ſtate of a free Engliſhman! Before he can diſcuſs any topic which involves his liberties or his rights, he is to ſend to a magiſtrate, who is to attend the diſcuſſion—that magiſtrate cannot prevent the meeting; but he can prevent the ſpeaking, becauſe he can alledge that what is ſaid has a tendency to diſturb the peace and tranquillity of the realm."—After many pointed remarks, Mr. Fox added, "ſuppoſe, for a moment, that the only object which the authors of this meaſure had in view, be to prevent a revolution in this country; how could they think to avoid ſuch an evil by proceeding upon a plan which has no reſpect for the liberties of the people, no eſteem for the experience to be derived from a peruſal of our hiſtory? Good God! Sir, (exclaimed Mr. Fox) I have ſeen and I have heard of revolutions in different ſtates; but they were not owing to the freedom of popular opinions, nor to the facility of popular meetings; they were owing to the very reverſe of theſe; therefore we ought to put ourſelves in a ſtate as different from them as poſſible, &c.

Sir William Pulteny, Mr. Stanley, Mr. Halhed, Mr. Curwen, Mr. Wilberforce, &c. all expreſſed their high regard for his Majeſty's virtues as a man, and chief magiſtrate; but reſpecting the bill, their opinions were various, and ſometimes oppoſite.

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The houſe then divided on the motion of the chancellor of the exchequer,

Ayes — — —	214
Noes — — — —	42
Majority for bringing in the bill	172

On the 11th of November, the bill for the ſafety and preſervation of his Majeſty's perſon and government, &c. was read to the Peers in a committee of the whole houſe.

As, however, the arguments employed on both ſides of the houſe for and againſt the bill, were nearly the ſame with theſe upon diſcuſſing the proclamations, we ſhall refer our readers for a full view of them to the public journals of that period. We ſhall juſt notice a remark made by the Duke of Bedford on ſome paſſages in the Biſhop of Rocheſter's ſpeech in defence of the bill, in all its parts. In this the learned prelate, he ſaid, had obſerved, that common ſpeculative and philoſophical diſquiſitions might be ſtill written and publiſhed, though he always thought they did more harm than good;—in fact, he did not know what the maſs of the people in any country *had to do with the laws but to obey them.*

The Earl of Lauderdale and the Duke of Bedford expreſſed their abhorrence of the aſſertion of the noble prelate; and the former obſerved, that if he had been in Turkey, and heard ſuch a declaration from the mouth of a *mufti*, he ſhould have attributed it to his *ignorance;* but to hear it from a Britiſh prelate, filled him with aſtoniſhment and indignation.

The houſe divided: Contents, 45.—Noncontents, 3.

Lord Lauderdale propoſed, on the third reading of the bill, an amendment, which was negatived without a diviſion.

Upon the third reading of the bill, and the queſtion being put, that the bill do paſs, the houſe divided: Contents, 66.—Noncontents, 7.

A proteſt againſt the paſſing of this bill was entered, and ſigned

BEDFORD,
DERBY,
LAUDERDALE.

While the bills were thus warmly diſcuſſed in both houſes of parliament, the oppoſition without doors was the moſt ſteady and ſyſtematic that perhaps was ever manifeſted to any public meaſure; and, if we conſider the immenſe force of influence which was wielded at this period by the miniſter, we ought rather to wonder at the ſpirit and magnanimity which was diſplayed by the people, than to be ſurprized at the efforts which the partizans of adminiſtration was enabled to make in their favour.

We ſhall juſt notice that the Whig Club of England met at the Crown and Anchor Tavern, on the 11th of November. This meeting was uncommonly numerous. It conſiſted of all the members of both houſes of parliament belonging to the Club, the Duke of Bedford in the chair. At this meeting they entered into ſtrong reſolutions to defend with their lives and properties the liberty of Engliſhmen—"That it was highly expedient, that meetings of the people in their reſpective diſtricts, ſhould be immediately called to conſider this important ſubject, and for the purpoſe of petitioning parliament againſt the ſaid bill, or any other meaſure which might tend to infringe the juſt rights of the people of Great Britain."

The members of the Correſponding Society, and a vaſt body of the populace aſſembled on the 12th of November in a field near Copenhagen houſe. A petition to parliament againſt paſſing the bill, was, with other reſolutions, unanimouſly agreed to. The meeting diſperſed in a peaceable manner.

The example of the Whig Club was immediately followed by the livery of London, the electors of Weſtminſter, the freeholders of Middleſex; and by ſeveral counties, and by almoſt every conſiderable town in the king-

kingdom: wherever a meeting was publicly called, the deciſion was almoſt unanimous.

In the mean time, the aſſociations againſt republicans and levellers, known by the appellation of Mr Reeves's Society, met at the Crown and Anchor Tavern, and agreed to addreſs his Majeſty, highly approving of the meaſures that had been taken, and of the two bills impending in parliament. To this ſimilar petitions were obtained in ſupport of the bills.

The utmoſt exertions of the miniſterial party could, however, only procure 64 petitions, while thoſe of the oppoſition amounted to the number of 94. The number of ſignatures to the latter, the popular petitions, was 131,284, while thoſe in favour of the miniſter were no more than 29,922.

The miniſter, however, was not checked in his headlong career by the voice of the people, and a confiding majority in both houſes of parliament went cheerfully through their labour of dilapidating that fabric, cemented by the blood of their anceſtors. A meſſage from the Lords informed the Commons on the 16th of November that their Lordſhips had paſſed an act for the ſafety and preſervation of his Majeſty from treaſonable acts, and deſired the concurrence of the Commons in the ſame.

The chancellor of the exchequer moved "that this act be read a firſt time."

This motion was carried by 170 againſt 26.

Upon the motion for a ſecond reading of the bill the houſe again divided. Ayes 151, Noes 25.

Upon the whole both were paſſed, but with very material alterations. The general out-cry which was raiſed againſt them throughout the nation produced theſe ſalutary effects in the minds of adminiſtration.

The preceding pages repreſent the inſult done to his Majeſty in his paſſing from the palace to open the ſeſſion of parliament, and the juſt indignation ſhewn by both houſes at the atrocity of the attempt upon his per-

ſon on that occaſion, and the reſolutions againſt ſimilar acts of treaſon. The ſpeech from the throne opened by ſtating his Majeſty's ſatisfaction that the general ſituation of affairs, notwithſtanding many events unfavourable to the common cauſe, was materially improved. The French had in Italy been driven back, and were checked on the ſide of Germany. Their ſucceſſes, and the treaties of peace they had entered into, were far from compenſating the evils they ſuffered from the continuance of the war, and the unparallelled embarraſſment and diſtreſs of their internal ſituation appeared to have produced in them an impreſſion, that their only relief muſt reſult from peace and a ſettled government. The criſis in which they now were, muſt probably produce conſequences important to the intereſts of Europe. If this criſis terminated in any thing affording a reaſonable expectation of ſecurity in any treaty, the appearance of a diſpoſition to treat for peace, on juſt and ſuitable terms, would, his Majeſty added, be met, on his part, with an earneſt deſire to give it the ſpeedieſt effect. The acceleration of this deſirable end, required, however, that we ſhould prove our ability to proſecute the war, till we could conclude it in a peace ſuited to the juſtice of our cauſe, and the ſituation of the enemy. To this end, the moſt vigorous naval preparations were making for ſecuring our ſuperiority, and carrying on our exertions in the Weſt Indies. The hoſtilities committed by the United Provinces, his Majeſty obſerved, had obliged him to treat them as at war with the country. The northern fleet had received the moſt active aſſiſtance from the Empreſs of Ruſſia. Treaties of alliance had been entered into with the two imperial courts; and the American treaty of commerce had been exchanged. The commons were informed, that, "further additions to the heavy burdens which had been unavoidably impoſed on the people," would be neceſſary. But this preſſure would be alleviated by the flouriſhing ſtate of the commerce and manufactures, and our expences being leſſened by the preſent circumſtances of the war.

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The addreſs to both houſes of parliament, concluded with a ſhort view of the meaſures neceſſary to be taken reſpecting the deficiency of grain.

The addreſs was moved in the houſe of Commons by Lord Dalkeith, and ſeconded by the honourable Mr. Stewart. It was, as uſual, an echo of the ſpeech from the throne. Mr Stewart obſerved, that the finances and the energy of France, were nearly exhauſted; their expences ſo enormous as not long to be ſupported; and their means of raiſing ſupplies to the diſburſements, exactly in the ratio of 70 to 1. The ſyſtem of terror, he conſidered as no longer exiſting under the preſent government of France. Our laſt campaign had not indeed been attended by *brilliant ſucceſs*; but our exertions had been uſeful in forcing the enemy to adopt unjuſtifiable means for the ſupport of an unjuſtifiable ſyſtem, which neceſſarily tended to its own deſtruction, and to weaken by the victories it enabled them to attain! Their incapacity to injure was our beſt guarantee; and to this point we were reducing them! He next deſcanted in moſt extraordinary terms, upon the unimpaired ſituation of our reſources. No where, he added, were our people deprived of the comforts of life by the effects of the war! The honourable gentleman obſerved, that there were ſtill many good objects of taxation for the preſent year; and the *exiſting taxes*, together with the national debt, were in a *ſtate of liquidation*; with many other obſervations, equally conſolatory. Mr Stewart concluded his ſpeech with ſeconding the motion.

We will by no means take up the time of our readers with an account of the various and long debates which the contents of his Majeſty's ſpeech occaſioned, at the opening of the ſeſſion; we ſhall juſt glance at ſuch obſervations then made, as had a reference to the war.

The word *ſatisfaction*, which had occurred ſo early in the ſpeech from the throne, excited the ſurpriſe of Mr. Sheridan. To be *ſatisfied with every thing* was eſteemed a mark of piety, and of chriſtian reſignation: certainly

certainly then, miniſters were the *moſt pious* men in the world. He then went on in a detail of the diſaſters which had overwhelmed the allies during the laſt campaign; and added, that the war with Holland might perhaps be conſidered by miniſters as an improvement of our ſituation! The ſeceſſions from the confederacy againſt France, and the progreſs from ſcarcity, with which we were formerly threatened, to an acknowledged famine, might encreaſe the ſatisfaction of the miniſter. The declaration of Louis XVIII. was ſuppoſed to be penned in this country, with the concurrence, or under the direction of miniſters. He thought thoſe who adviſed his Majeſty to ſpill the blood of this country, for the reſtoration of deſpotiſm in France, were as great traitors to their country as the miniſters of Charles II. who adviſed him to enter into the pay of that country. Leagues with the deſpotic monarchs of France, expelled the houſe of Stuart from this country: and could any league be more deſtructive to its intereſts than one with the houſe of Bourbon, which had ever been the inveterate enemy of Great Britain, of its liberty, and its commerce? He diſapproved of the addreſs *in toto*, but propoſed another of a very oppoſite kind.

He was anſwered by Mr. Jenkinſon. Among other obſervations, he remarked, that we had ſucceeded in repelling the dangers that threatened us. The *ſucceſſes* of the war had excited various royaliſt inſurrections, which bid fair to attain the wiſhed-for ſucceſs. Unfortunately, however, the ſyſtem of terror under Robeſpierre took place. The determination of the French to retain Holland, was, he thought, an inſuperable obſtacle to an immediate peace; and the remedy for her *enormous acquiſitions*, was to endeavour in another quarter to obtain ſomething to change or to compenſate. At the beginning of the war, he had equally wiſhed and expected the reſtoration of the emigrants, and of the monarchy of France; and this he thought, if attainable,

able, a fair ſubject of war; but believed now it was not attainable.

General Tarleton oppoſed the addreſs. Among other ſtriking obſervations, he bitterly blamed the conduct of the expedition to Quiberon—the preſent ſcarcity was attributed by the General in a great degree, to the loſs which agricultural employments ſuſtained from the millions of men who were now engaged in war, particularly in Brabant, on the borders of the Rhine, and in the fertile fields of Poland.—Our late allies, the King of Spain, and the Prince of Heſſe Caſſel, had left us to overthrow France by ourſelves. To effect this, we ourſelves muſt firſt be ruined! "Away then," ſaid the General, "with ſophiſtry! Away with deluſion! Away with all the agents of a corrupt and profligate adminiſtration!"—He concluded by ſaying "that a juſtly incenſed enemy, would not probably give terms when we choſe to demand them; perhaps might not even conſent to the meaſures we propoſe. We muſt adopt a new ſyſtem, appoint new miniſters, and adopt an energy ſuitable to our embarraſſments."—We have lived to ſee the predictions of General Tarleton realized.

Mr. Fox cenſured the ſpeech, and the miniſters by whom it was written. It was not enough, he ſaid, that they ſhould for three years perſiſt in a war for miſerable ſpeculation, add one hundred millions of debt to the capital, load the people with four millions per annum of permanent taxes, and make them feel all the miſeries of ſcarcity, but they muſt be inſulted by the *falſehood* of being told their ſituation was improved. He recapitulated the rapid and ſubſtantial ſucceſſes obtained by the arms of the French republic on the continent.—The ſufferings of the poor he ſtated to be extreme. Oh! but France was reduced to unparallelled diſtreſs, and this was our comfort! He would not quarrel about words; but he muſt notice the ſtrange logic, "that the people of this country were to be told that this unequalled diſtreſs of the French was owing to the war,

war, whereas the diſtreſſes in England had nothing to do with it."—France, who in June laſt, was ſaid to be gaſping in her laſt agonies,—France, ſince the date of this expiring agony, had made the moſt brilliant campaign that the hiſtory of mankind exhibited—But ſuch agonies excited his fears. We cannot follow the arguments of this great and enlightened ſtateſman, who concluded his admirable ſpeech by moving an amendment—praying his Majeſty that ſuch terms of peace ſhould be offered to the French republic, as ſhould be conſiſtent with the honour of the crown, and with the ſecurity and intereſts of the people.

Mr. Pitt conſidered this amendment as merely the mockery of returning to a ſtate of ſecurity and peace. He ſtated the grounds of his *ſatisfaction* to be, that, "*allowing for the victories and advantages obtained by the enemy, and for all the calamities which had befallen this country*, or our allies, the houſe, from looking at the preſent principles of the war, muſt obſerve the grounds of his ſatisfaction, and the ſtate of our improvement! They could not but perceive the enemy's reduced means of proſecuting the war. They were now in a ſituation to afford us fair proſpects of their being ſoon, perhaps more capable of giving reaſonable ſecurity of engagements of peace. They felt a greater neceſſity for peace, and were more diſpoſed to it. Their paper currency would overwhelm them. From this and other diſaſtrous circumſtances, Mr. Pitt predicted their total inability to carry on the war for another campaign. After uſing a variety of arguments to prove that the ſituation of Britain was improved, while that of France was worſe, he concluded a long ſpeech with ſeconding the addreſs. In the diviſion of the houſe, there appeared for the addreſs, 240, for the amendment, 59.

In the houſe of Lords, the addreſs was moved on the 30th by Lord Mount Edgecumbe. He too expatiated upon the *improvements* of our ſituation, the checks ſuſtained by the French on the Rhine, in Italy, &c. The addreſs

addreſs was ſeconded by Lord Walſingham, who among other topics obſerved, that his Majeſty, inſtead of availing himſelf of the very depreſſed ſtate of the enemy to carry on the war upon a ſpirit of national vengeance, out of mercy to the French, took the earlieſt opportunity of pledging himſelf to make peace as ſoon as a ſettled government ſhould afford a fair proſpect of a ſafe and honourable peace. His Lordſhip pointed out the evils attendant upon a temporary and "patched up" peace, and obſerved, that the proſecution of the war could not at preſent be diſpenſed with: he thought that the intereſts of this country peculiarly required that it ſhould be carried on with vigour in the Weſt Indies.

Lords Grenville, Bedford, Spencer, &c. all ſpoke at great length on the preſent ſituation of affairs, with which we will not trouble our readers.

In the courſe of the debate on the addreſs, in both houſes, many arguments aroſe reſpecting the ſcarcity of corn mentioned in the latter part of his Majeſty's ſpeech. Bills were, of conſequence, propoſed for the alleviation of this national evil.

On the 30th of October, the chancellor of the exchequer moved in the Commons for a committee for the extenſion, during another twelve months, of the bill of the laſt ſeſſion, allowing the importation of corn duty free. The ſame ſubject, viz. the high price of corn was again brought before the houſe by the ſame gentleman, November 3. In ſpeaking on the bill propoſed, he ſtrongly recommended the uſe of ſeveral ſubſtitutes for wheaten flour. A conſiderable ſaving of wheat might be made by the ſubſtitution of articles, not applicable for food in the manufacture of ſtarch. For this purpoſe he propoſed to bring in a bill, and alſo for preventing obſtruction in the tranſit of grain, from one country to another.

After various and friendly obſervations between Mr. Fox and Mr. Pitt on this important ſubject, it was agreed to leave the trade perfectly open, and to grant a bounty upon the importation. This bounty was

twenty ſhillings upon every quarter, and fifteen ſhillings upon every barrel imported from the Mediterranean, till 300,000 quarters ſhould be imported. Upon corn imported from America, fifteen ſhillings per quarter. and ten ſhillings per barrel, till 500,000 barrels ſhould be imported; three ſhillings per barrel upon Indian corn, till 500,000 quarters ſhould be imported. Many other patriotic meaſures were propoſed to remedy the grievance ſo univerſally felt, by the humane Mr. Whitbread and other gentlemen.

The proſecution of the war being reſolved on by a large majority of both houſes of parliament, the ſupplies neceſſary for that purpoſe were next to be provided.

Accordingly, on the 4th of November, Lord Arden moved, in the committee of ſupply, that 110,000 ſeamen ſhould be employed for the ſervice of the year 1796, including 18,000 marines; and that four pounds a man, per month, for thirteen months, ſhould be allowed; both of which were accordingly voted. On the 4th of December, the committee granted a ſum, not exceeding 624,152l. 10s. ½d. for the ordinary pay of the navy, including marines, and 708,400l. for building and repairing ſhips of war.

Previous to the production of the army eſtimates, General M'Leod moved for returns of all the military force of the country. Before the houſe voted away the money of their conſtituents, it was, he obſerved, their duty to enquire into its purpoſes, its application, the number of men paid, and the allowance granted to each. It was, beſides, the duty of the houſe to watch the conduct of miniſters, and to ſee their projects and powers for their execution; to know alſo the means employed for the protection of the country, and the manner in which the levies had been conducted. The houſe ought likewiſe to ſee how gallant and experienced officers had been ſhamefully neglected, and the truſt committed to thoſe who had neither age nor ſkill to diſcharge it properly. This motion being agreed to, the

Meſſrs Grey, Sheridan, &c. violently oppoſed the innovation as dangerous to the conſtitution; and reminded them of thoſe deſpotic times upon the overthrow of the Roman republic when the imperial tyrants formed a vaſt pretorian camp adjacent to the capital, and ſo overawed the deliberations of the ſenate, as to deprive that once auguſt body, and the Roman people, of the very ſhadow of liberty. On a diviſion of the houſe, the Ayes 24. Noes. 98.

At a very early period in the ſeſſion, (November 18th,) the miniſter gave notice of his intention of laying before the commons the uſual motions with reſpect to the expenditure and ſupplies. The Budget (as it is termed in the technical language of the houſe) was not opened till December 7th. when Mr. Pitt obſerved, that he was fully aware of the difficulties of calling the attention of the houſe to a view of the expences of the year at ſo early a period, when many of them muſt be judged by eſtimate, and of courſe, muſt be taken upon confidence. He called upon the committee, however, to recollect *the proſpect of peace* held out to them in his Majeſty's ſpeech; adding, that it was probable a ſpeedy termination to the war would be materially aſſiſted by ſhewing ourſelves prepared for either alternative. He therefore thought it beſt to open the general ſtate of receipt and expenditure, and he did this with more confidence, in the perſuaſion that the account would be a *triumph* of the finances of Great Britain, and fully demonſtrate her equal to every emergency. He was the more induced to this, from obſerving the totally exhauſted ſtate of the enemy, while Great Britain could confidently look forward to providing the means for carrying on the war for years, if neceſſary, without burthening the people, or injuring trade! The whole of the ſupply wanted. Mr. Pitt ſtated as follows:

Navy—110,000 ſeamen —	£. 15,720,000	0	0
Ordnance — — —	624,152	1	8
In all, for the navy, army, &c.	£. 27,662,083	12	6

He

He next ſtated the ways and means to raiſe this immenſe ſum.

The further ſums to be provided for in the courſe of the ſeſſion, were, he obſerved, firſt, the navy debt, which had encreaſed to five millions. The bounty upon corn, one million. For American loyaliſts, three hundred thouſand pounds.

A vote of credit was then propoſed by the miniſter of a ſum to a large amount. This excited long and warm debates in both houſes, but was at laſt agreed to, as uſual, by great majorities.

A meſſage from his Majeſty, relative to his diſpoſition to meet any negociation on the part of the enemy, with a deſire to give it the ſpeedieſt effect in producing a peace, was read by the ſpeaker on the 8th of December, previous to the report of the budget.

On the day following, Mr. Pitt moved an addreſs in reply to the royal meſſage. He obſerved that the ſentiments in the meſſage were conformable to thoſe delivered from the throne at the commencement of the ſeſſion, with a view to the formation of a government in France, with which a ſecure and honourable peace might be concluded. He renewed thoſe ſentiments as applicable to the preſent French government, the recent ſucceſſes of our allies, and the embarraſſment of the enemy's finances.

Mr. Sheridan wiſhed to know what had occurred in, at moſt, the ſpace of five weeks, of ſo important a nature as to occaſion ſuch an alteration of ſentiment in the miniſter. Mr. Sheridan, however, thought this change of ſentiment could not be ſincere, but merely intended to defeat the motion for peace, of which Mr. Grey had given previous notice. This very government (of France), Mr. Sheridan ſaid, which the miniſter ſtated on the opening of the budget to be "not only on the verge, but in the gulph of bankruptcy, and rapidly approaching to what muſt inevitably overthrow or deſtroy it;" this very government, was now repreſented to the houſe not only as a form of government

ment with which we may now ſafely negociate, but as capable of maintaining a ſecure and permanent peace. —To many lucid obſervations of a ſimilar nature, Mr. Sheridan ſtrongly inſiſted on the propriety and neceſſity of not conſidering any particular form of government in France as neceſſary for peace with the enemy, and therefore wiſhed the houſe to have this principle entirely diſclaimed, and that the form of government in France might be no bar to negociation, whenever a peace could be ſafely effected; and to entreat his Majeſty would be pleaſed to order an immediate negociation to commence. Theſe laſt obſervations, Mr. Sheridan propoſed as an amendment to the addreſs.

This was oppoſed by Mr. Wilberforce and Mr. M. Robinſon, and was powerfully ſupported by Mr. Grey.

Mr. Pitt obſerved, that the amendment went much farther than the addreſs: it required miniſters to enter into immediate negociation, whether they ſaw a proper diſpoſition on the part of the enemy or not. He denied that our having entered into the war was an aggreſſion on our part, or that miniſters had ever aſſerted that the reſtoration of monarchy there, was a *ſine qua non (without which, nothing to be done)*. From the change which had taken place in the French government—from the change which had ariſen in the mode of calling forth its ſupplies,—and, above all, the change in the temper and ſentiments of the people,—there was a hope that peace might be concluded with them at this time, which had not exiſted at any other period of the war.—The ſubject of the decayed finances of France, had been already ſufficiently diſcuſſed. Mr. Pitt obſerved, that the Britiſh character in war had never been more exalted than in the preſent. What had been done in Holland and Germany? We had gained three moſt important points; Martinique, Cape Nicola Mole, and the Cape of Good Hope. If the amendment, and the advice of its promoters were adopted, the diſcretion of government would be entirely taken away, and the reſponſibility doubled.

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The preſent meaſure was conſidered by Mr. Fox as a total retraction of all the charges which had been made againſt himſelf; for he had, from the firſt, maintained the very doctrine delivered in his Majeſty's meſſage. The amendment, he contended, ſo far from exceeding, did not go to the extent of the meſſage: it only declared that there were no impediments in treating, in the form of the government of France. After a number of pointed obſervations, proving that the fitneſs of that country to maintain the relations of peace and amity was evident to the whole world. He ſaid he would heartily vote for the addreſs; but he would aſk miniſters, how far we had attained the objects of the war? The firſt was, our obligation to defend the States General, and prevent the opening of the Scheldt. Miniſters now ſpoke of treating with France *poſſeſſed of Holland.* We had then failed for Holland. What had we done for Auſtria, Spain, and Pruſſia? From a review of the tranſactions of the war, he contended, that it had been highly diſaſtrous. On every account, Mr. Fox thought it neceſſary to bind miniſters to make peace. The people would force them in the end, and probably ſoon, to that meaſure; and as a proof of their ſentiments, the ſpeech from the throne had produced no impreſſion on the funds; whereas the meſſage produced on that day a riſe of five or ſix per cent.

Miniſters, Mr. Dundas contended, ought, in tranſactions ſo intricate and embarraſſing, to be left free and unfettered. After ſome other obſervations from the honourable ſecretary, the amendment propoſed by Mr. Sheridan was put, and negatived without a diviſion.

Very ſoon after the Chriſtmas receſs, Mr. Grey obſerved in the houſe of Commons, that from the meſſage delivered from his Majeſty, a general expectation of returning peace had been excited; and a general deſire of knowing whether it was ſtill at a diſtance, or whether we were ſtill to proſecute the war. As Mr. Pitt replied, that he did not think it incumbent upon him to anſwer ſuch a queſtion at preſent, Mr. Grey proceeded

ceeded to give notice of his intended motion for peace, which he introduced into the houſe on the 15th of February. He obſerved, that contrary to the hopes that had been formed, no negociation for peace had taken place, but that miniſters appeared determined to proſecute the conteſt to extremity; that they had totally changed the language with which they ſet out: it was no longer for the preſervation of *ſocial order*, the ſafety of *regular governments*, or the extirpation of doctrines hoſtile to tranquillity. The expedient was now recurred to of *deluding the people with the hopes of peace*, while they were determined to perſevere in the ſyſtem of warfare. In bringing forward his motion, Mr. Grey obſerved, the queſtion appeared diſembarraſſed of many topics which it formerly involved. The French were no longer heard of as the avowed enemies of God and man: we had now no objection to contemplate them as a republic, one and indiviſible, founded on the baſis of liberty, equality, fraternity, and the rights of man. He ſhould, he ſaid, be told to rely on the wiſdom of miniſters, and the gracious diſpoſition of his Majeſty, which, through his miniſters, he had lately communicated to that houſe, and to the country; but he was no friend to a blind confidence in miniſters who had ſo repeatedly ſhewn themſelves unworthy of it.—Mr. Grey declared that he was ſo little diſpoſed to fetter the operations of miniſters in any real endeavours to obtain peace, that, if he could have any aſſurance that they were negociating, he would gladly withdraw his motion. He concluded with moving for an addreſs to his Majeſty, praying him to communicate to the executive government of the French republic, his readineſs to meet any diſpoſition to negociate with an earneſt deſire to give it the ſpeedieſt effect.

Mr. Pitt oppoſed the addreſs, and obſerved, that no temporary reverſe in the fortune of war, no internal preſſure in our domeſtic ſituation, had yet produced that humiliation contained in the honourable gentleman's addreſs. He contended that our ſucceſſes had

been ſuch as to obviate any obſtacle to negociation on the ſcore of national honour, and therefore the difficulties were certainly leſſened. The motion only tended to raiſe ſuſpicion in the breaſts of our allies, who, *if they remained entire*, might give honourable and laſting peace to Europe. To preſerve this union entire, Mr. Pitt would employ all our energy. He could not, he ſaid, give a proſpect of immediate peace, but it would not be the fault of miniſters if that period was remote. France, he ſaid, held out that they were ready to grant peace becauſe the Engliſh aſked it; that is, we are to ſue for it, and abandon all for which our anceſtors had fought, abandon our allies and the ſafety of all Europe, and ſacrifice to France every thing that was dear to us.

There was a period, ſaid Mr Fox, when we had ſome right to preſcribe to an enemy, now victorious and irreſiſtible; when they were driven out of the Dutch provinces—routed in every battle in Flanders—compelled to retreat within their own territories—When Valenciennes was taken—when a conſiderable impreſſion was made upon them in the north, and by Spain in the ſouth—when they had not one inch of ground beyond old France. Then was our time to treat, and even command a peace. That ſeaſon is now gone, and poſſibly for ever! He lamented that ſuch aſperities had been diſplayed on both ſides, in the preſent conteſt, that the temper of governments would occaſion a difficulty no leſs formidable than any which might ariſe in the diſcuſſion of terms; and he doubted, from the diſpoſition and temper the miniſter had that night diſcovered, theſe difficulties would be greatly encreaſed.

We ſhall only advert to a circumſtance reſpecting a new ſpecies of warfare, the recital which excited univerſal horror in the compaſſionate breaſts of Engliſhmen. We ſhall juſt mention it. A few days after the above diſcuſſion, viz. on the 26th of February, General M'Leod addreſſed the houſe of Commons reſpecting a letter which had appeared in the public prints, ſtating, that there had been an importation from Cuba to Jamaica

maica of 100 blood-hounds, attended by twenty Spaniſh cheſſeurs, for the purpoſe of hunting the Maroon rebels, and that they had proceeded into the woods for the proſecution of their bloody plan.

Mr. Pitt ſaid, that nothing could be more foreign from the ideas of miniſters than carrying on war in ſuch a mode. Mr. Yorke, here obſerved, that the uſe of blood-hounds in diſcovering haunts of murderers, &c. was nothing new, and that the Maroons maſſacred every enemy that fell in their way. The General, however, brought forward an original letter, ſtating that the Maroons were men, free men, and the deſcendants of free men. What were theſe blood-hounds? They were dogs which the Spaniards employed for the purpoſe of exterminating the peaceable natives of Mexico. But could the parliament of Great Britain wink at ſuch enormities? It had been, the General ſaid, uſual in Cuba for the Spaniards to feed theſe dogs with human fleſh to make them unnaturally ferocious—to ſplit a child in two, or cut up an Indian into quarters, to feaſt theſe frightful animals. Would the Britiſh houſe of Commons ſit unconcerned, while fifty couple of blood-hounds were imported from Cuba, and twenty cheſſeurs, to purſue the ſame bloody and inhuman ſport? And who were the ſportſmen? Britiſh ſubjects, Britiſh officers, and Britiſh ſoldiers. We were not at war with the Maroons; but allowing we were, he proved from the acknowledged laws of war, the principles of morality, the benign genius of our holy religion, and above all the dreadful danger of retaliation, that the meaſure was infamous, and might prove fatal in the iſſue to the whole iſland. He moved for an addreſs to his Majeſty, praying that he would give directions for laying before the houſe whatever has been received reſpecting the mode of carrying on war againſt the Maroons.

Mr. Dundas oppoſed the motion, and ſtated that no information had reached miniſters that theſe dogs were uſed for the purpoſe of carrying on the war. The uſe

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of theſe blood-hounds in Cuba was, he ſaid, merely to prevent negroes from running away, or to diſcover the way they had taken. If the complaint was true, neceſſary meaſures would certainly be taken to remove the evil; and from the mere rumour which had been received, miniſters had ſent off diſpatches expreſſing their diſapprobation of the meaſure, if any ſuch had occurred.

On the 13th of April, Mr Sheridan moved for ſeveral papers relative to the Weſt India expedition.

The chancellor of the exchequer objected to their production. The debate was reſumed, April 21, when Mr Sheridan obſerved that no reaſon had been offered for withholding them. He was replied to by Mr. Dundas, and a long debate took place; but the various ſpeeches made on the occaſion we do not here inſert.

On the 6th of May a very weighty and well ſupported accuſation was brought againſt miniſters in the houſe of Commons by Mr Grey, on which he grounded a motion for impeachment. The waſte of the public money was the principal ground on which he ſtated the impeachment. He urged the charge with a variety of arguments, and followed it with powerful calumniations. He was replied to by Mr. Pitt, who obſerved, that at all times, and under all circumſtances, it was the indiſpenſable duty of the houſe vigilantly to ſuperintend the expenditure of the public money. But having made this conceſſion, he, in a long and informing ſpeech, defended the conduct of himſelf and co-adjutors in the government from the charges brought againſt them by Mr Grey. After a diſcuſſion of ſeveral hours, Mr. Steele vindicated the conduct of miniſters, and propoſed the previous queſtion, which was carried by a majority of 171.—Ayes 209, noes 38.

Previous to the above diſcuſſion, the report of the committee of ſupply upon the reſolution for granting to his Sardinian Majeſty a ſubſidy of 200,000l was brought up.

Mr.

Mr. Fox obſerved, that, from a material change of circumſtances, this ſubſidy did not ſtand upon the ſame ground as formerly. It was then underſtood that he was to co-operate with the allies againſt France—He now manifeſted a deſire for peace. If it was our object to induce him to continue the war, we ought to know whether he conceived himſelf bound not to make peace without our conſent. If he was not bound, it was then a queſtion how far miniſters had conſented to his attempt to procure a ſeparate peace.

Mr Pitt thought the houſe bound to accede to the meaſure, both in point of prudence and honour, from the uniform honour and fidelity of the Sardinian Monarch. He denied that this Prince had ever manifeſted a deſire for a ſeparate peace, and ſaid that the common enemy had acquainted him, that they would make a ſeparate peace with him, provided he would cede their conqueſts in his dominions, and unite with them. This, however, with a magnanimity which could never be too highly praiſed, he had refuſed. Mr. Pitt, however, candidly ſtated, that the ſubſidy would not be granted ſhould his Sardinian Majeſty ſecede from the coalition.

In the courſe of the ſeſſion, the ſtate of the national finances was fully diſcuſſed; and ſeveral alarming facts were brought before the eye of the public. In a motion on the ſubject, Mr. Grey, on the 10th of March, obſerved that it was of the utmoſt conſequence for the houſe to know the real ſituation of the country; whether we continued to proſecute the preſent ruinous war, or looked forward to that moſt deſirable event, a ſpeedy peace. On taking the eſtimate of the three preceding years of the war, we had added ſeventy-ſeven millions to the capital of our funded debt. The preſent war, either in extent or importance, was far from that under King William. Our religion and conſtitution were then at ſtake; our all was then equally in danger, and our exertions to preſerve it, equally varied and extenſive. The expences incurred by the preſent ruinous

war

war exceeded both King William's and the late American conteſt, in which we were matched with nearly the force of all Europe, ſo far as there can be little doubt will not only aſtoniſh the houſe, but alſo the whole world! In the laſt three years, there had been (ſpeaking in round numbers) incurred a debt for the navy, *of fifteen millions, two hundred thouſand pounds.* He inſiſted on enquiry being entered into by the whole houſe. Mr. Jenkinſon oppoſed it.

On a diviſion of the houſe for Mr. Jenkinſon for the order of the day, Ayes 207. Noes 45.

Mr. Pitt on the 18th brought forward his ſecond budget, and laid his various ſtatements before the houſe, with which we will not trouble our readers. But he ſeemed determined to continue the war.

While the contending powers on the Rhine were collecting their forces to open the campaign of 1796, as ſoon as the limited time for the armiſtice ſhould expire, —and the French army in Italy, which poſſeſſed only a few poſts on the ſhores of the Mediterranean, between Nice and Genoa, was recruiting its ſhattered forces, to attempt once more the conqueſt of Piedmont. —The civil war in the weſtern departments of France drew near to a cloſe. This war had proved more hoſtile to the eſtabliſhment of the republic, than the combinations of all its foreign enemies. The fertile country of La Vendee, where nature had poured forth its riches in ſuch profuſion, but which the horrors of this terrible conflict had ſo long covered with ruin and deſolation, had enjoyed but for a moment the proſpect of happier days. The chiefs of the royaliſts, who had made their formal ſubmiſſion to the republic, and who had been admitted to the privilege of treating with the government as with a foreign power, again ſeduced the inhabitants of thoſe departments from their allegiance; and the executive power found that it was indiſpenſibly neceſſary to rid itſelf of this domeſtic enemy, before it entered on the operations of the campaign. General Hoche ably ſeconded the zeal of the directory, and to whom

whom the task of terminating this war was committed. The directory charged him with this important trust, as that officer had given such unequivocal proofs of his patriotism, as well as of his personal courage and military talents.

Hitherto the insurgents had maintained the contest with address and intelligence; but their exertions now degenerated into a war of rapine and plunder. The chiefs of La Vendee, whose professed aim was the restoration of royalty, had felt the necessity of good order and discipline while that object was thought attainable, and had conducted their troops with the address and prudence necessary to its success; but perceiving that the pacification lately concluded with the republic had alienated the minds of the great mass of the people in the insurgent countries, from attempting to plunge themselves a second time into the horrors from which they had just escaped, they let loose the remainder of their bands to indiscriminate pillage and murder. The Vendean had now returned to his peaceful occupation; the interchanges of commerce had taken place with the inhabitants of the neighbouring departments, and the desolated communes began to feel the comforts of regular governments, when this new eruption took place. Stoffiet, who had previously intimated to his confidents that the pacification entered into with the republic was a necessary measure in order to renew the war with vigour, again issued proclamations, calling the people to arms, and assuring them that the intention of the republic in making peace was only to deliver them over individually to destruction.

Although this invitation was disregarded by the people in general, still the influence of the chiefs encouraged numbers to revolt; and the plunderers being released from every restraint of discipline and subordination, not only the western departments, which had already been the scene of war, were again desolated, but the departments nearer to the seat of government became also the theatre of pillage and terror.

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The conflict, as might have been expected, was ſoon over; for after ſeveral bloody defeats of the various rebel armies, and the capture and death of their leaders Charette and Stofflet, who ſuffered on the 29th of March, the reminder of the inſurgents, comprehended under the general name of Chouans and Vendeans, harraſſed on every ſide, ſubmitted to the forces of the republic, or to the magiſtracies of the ſeveral communes; and peace was finally reſtored to theſe deſolated departments.

A campaign of much greater conſequence, and which added more luſtre to the armes of the republic, was opened in the ſouth on the 9th of April. During the three former campaigns, the French had in vain attempted to penetrate through Piedmont, into Italy. That country of mountains, ſeemed to oppoſe an inſurmountable barrier to their progreſs. The republican armies had hitherto only ſcaled the vanguard of the Alps, from which alſo they had been driven, after having viewed, in perſpective, the immenſe difficulties they had to encounter before they could ſucceed in achieving the conqueſt of Italy. The French had poſſeſſion of the coaſt from Nice to Genoa; but the paſſage into Italy was blockaded by the Auſtrian and Sardinian armies, who had apparently taken the moſt effectual meaſures to prevent the further progreſs of the enemy. The army of Italy having received conſiderable reinforcements, was entruſted to the command of General BONAPARTE, a young officer, of whoſe military ſkill, no mention had been made hitherto during the courſe of the revolution.*

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* As this moſt extraordinary man has made ſuch a tranſcendant figure on the ſcene of public affairs, we ſhall here give a ſhort account of him, as it appeared in a reſpectable periodical publication, and there is reaſon to believe it anthentic.

"This wonderful perſonage, born in the town of Ajaccio, in Corſica, 1767, was the ſon of Charles Buonaparte and Lætitia Ranioſini. His father, who was alſo a native of Ajaccio, was bred to the civil law at Rome, and took part with the celebrated Paoli,

BONAPARTE

CHIEF CONSUL of FRANCE

Engraved for Vint & Anderson's History of the War

The firſt action of the preſent campaign took place near Savona, on the ſhores of the Mediterranean, near which the French general occupied a poſt named Voltri,

Paoli, in the ever memorable ſtruggle made by a handful of brave iſlanders againſt the tyrannical efforts of Louis XV. and the Machiavelian ſchemes of his prime miniſter, Choiſeul. I am aſſured by a near relation of the family, that he not only laid aſide the gown upon this occaſion, but actually carried a muſket as a private centinel.

"On the conqueſt of the iſland, he wiſhed to retire with the gallant chieftain, who had, with ſo much magnanimity, ſtruggled for its independence; but he was prevented by his uncle, a canon, who exerciſed parental authority over him.

In 1773, a deputation from the three eſtates was ſent to wait on the King of France; and, on this occaſion, Charles Buonaparte was ſelected to repreſent the nobles. He was ſoon after promoted to the office of *procuratore reale* of Ajaccio, where his anceſtors, ſuppoſed to have been originally from Tuſcany, had been ſettled for near 200 years.

"The family of the elder Buonaparte was numerous, for he had ſeven children, four ſons and three daughters. It was his good fortune, however, to be cheriſhed by the French; and both he and his family lived in the greateſt intimacy with the Count de Marbœuf, the governor, who received a revenue of 60,000 livres a year, on condition of ſaying nothing! An *intendant* was paid nearly as much; and a ſwarm of hungry leeches, engendered in the corrupted court of Verſailles, at one and the ſame time, ſucked the blood of the oppreſſed Corſicans, and drained the treaſure of the mother country; in ſhort, like the conqueſts of more recent times, the ſubjugation of that iſland ſeems to have been achieved for no other purpoſe than to gratify avarice, and ſatiate rapacity.

"On the death of his friend Charles Buonaparte, M. de Marbœuf continued to patroniſe the family, and placed his ſecond ſon, the celebrated Napoleone, the ſubject of theſe memoirs, at the *Ecole Militaire*, or Military Academy. The advantages reſulting from this ſeminary, which has produced more great men than any other in Europe, were not loſt on young Bonaparte; he there applied himſelf, with equal aſſiduity and addreſs, to mathematics, and ſtudied the art of war as a regular ſcience. Born in the midſt of a republican ſtruggle in his native land, it was his good fortune to burſt into manhood at the moment when the country of his choice ſhook off the chains with which ſhe had been manacled for centuries. There was alſo ſomething in his manners and habits that announced him equal to the ſituation for which he ſeemed deſtined: inſtead of imitating the frivolities of the age, his mind was continually occupied

tri, ſix leagues diſtant from Genoa. Here he was attacked by the troops under General Beaulieu, and driven back to his lines near Savona. Preſuming on their

cupied by uſeful ſtudies; and from the lives of Plutarch, a volume which he always carried in his pocket, he learned at an early age, to copy the manners, and emulate the actions of antiquity.

"With this diſpoſition, it is but little wonder that he ſhould have dedicated his life to the uſe of arms. We accordingly find him, while yet a boy, preſenting himſelf as a candidate for a commiſſion in the artillery; and his ſucceſs equalled the expectation of his friends, for he was the twelfth on the liſt, out of thirty-ſix who proved victorious in the conteſt. In conſequence of this event, he became a lieutenant in the French army, and ſerved as ſuch for two or three years, in the regiment of *La Fere*.

"In 1790, General Paoli repaired to France, where he was honoured with the civic crown, and there embraced the ſon of his old friend who had ſerved under him at St. Fiorenzo, in 1768. They met again ſoon after in Corſica, where Bonaparte, now a Captain, was elected Lieutenant-colonel of a corps of Corſican national guards in activity.

"On the ſecond expedition fitted out againſt Sardinia, he embarked with his countrymen, and landed in the iſland of Madalena, which he took poſſeſſion of in the name of the French republic; but finding the troops that had been got together for this expedition, neither poſſeſſed organization nor diſcipline, he returned to Ajaccio, whence he had ſet out.

"In the mean time, a ſcheme was formed for the annexation of Corſica to the crown of England; (of which we have already given an account) and the Britiſh cabinet, in an evil hour, acceded to a propoſition, which, while it diminiſhed the wealth, contributed but little either to the honour or advantage of this country. Bonaparte had a difficult part to act on this occaſion. He was perſonally attached to Paſquale Paoli; he reſented the treatment he experienced during the reign of the terroriſts, and had actually drawn up, with his own hand, the remonſtrance tranſmitted by the municipality of Ajaccio againſt the decree declaring the General an enemy to the commonwealth. Indeed, he was ſuppoſed to be ſo intimately connected with him, that a warrant was actually iſſued by Lacombe de St. Michel and the two other commiſſioners of the Convention, to arreſt young Bonaparte. Nothwithſtanding this he was determined to remain faithful to his engagements; and learning that the Engliſh fleet in the Mediterranean had ſailed for the purpoſe of ſeizing his native iſland, he embarked, along with his family, for the continent, and ſettled within eighteen leagues of Toulon.

"That

their ſucceſs, the Auſtrian troops advanced in hopes of cutting off the retreat of the diviſion which they had repulſed: but Bonaparte, who had foreſeen this retreat, had

" That town, the ſecond ſea-port in France, was at this moment in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, having been juſt ſeized upon by Admiral Lord Hood, who had ſubſtituted the Britiſh croſs in the place of the three coloured flag. The military talents of the young Corſican were well known to Salicitti, who introduced him to Barras, now one of the directory, to whom he afforded undubitable proof of the ſincerity of his profeſſions, at a period when ſuſpicion was juſtified by the moſt ſerious and frequent defections. He was accordingly advanced from the rank of *chef de brigade*, to that of General of artillery, and directed, under General Dugommier, the attacks of the various redoubts that ſurrounded and ſtrengthened this important port, in which Collot d'Herbois ſoon after declared, 'that he had found the galley-ſlaves alone faithful to the republic!' It is almoſt needleſs to add, that the energy of the French troops, added to the ſcientific arrangements of the engineers, overcame the zeal and reſiſtance of the motley garriſon, reſtored the key of the Mediterranean to France.

" It may be neceſſary to remark, however, that Bonaparte, in 1793, took an active part againſt General Paoli and the Engliſh; for, in the courſe of that year, he appeared with a ſmall armament before Ajaccio, the town and citadel of which he ſummoned in the name of the republic; but he met with a formidable enemy in his own couſin, the brave Captain Maſſeria, who commanded a corps of Corſicans during the ſiege of Gibraltar, and had learned the application of red-hot ſhot under Lord Heathfield.

" The conqueſt of Toulon contributed not a little to raiſe the credit of Bonaparte; and it proved equally advantageous to his friend Barras. That deputy had been alſo bred a military man, and was employed by his colleagues on all great emergencies. One of theſe ſoon occurred; this was the commotion among the ſection of Paris, known by the name of the inſurrection of Vendemiaire. On this occaſion he took care to be ſurrounded with able men, among whom was General Bonaparte, whom he had inveſted with the command of the artillery at the ſiege of Toulon. Gentili was ſucceeded in the command of the army, at this criſis, by Bonaparte, and it was to the maſterly diſpoſitions made by that intrepid officer, that the triumph of the repreſentative body is to be principally aſcribed. It is but juſtice to ſay, that the moderation diſplayed on this occaſion, is perhaps unequalled in the hiſtory of the civil wars of modern times.

" A nobler field now opened for the exertions of Bonaparte, for he was ſoon after inveſted with the chief command of the French

had ſtrengthened his poſts on the flanks of the Auſtrians, who were advancing, but who had been held in check by the forces which occupied the poſt of Monte-

French army in Italy, which, under his direction, prepared to open the campaign of 1796. In the ſpring of that year, we find the Auſtro-Sardinian army defeated within forty miles of Turin; 14,000 were either killed or taken priſoners on this occaſion, and the cannon and camp equipage ſeized on by the victors. The army of Lombardy was alſo doomed to experience a moſt humiliating defeat, although led on by the cautious veteran, Beaulieu, in perſon. This victory was attributed ſolely to the ſkilful manœuvres of Bonaparte, commander in chief, ſeconded by the active exertions of Generals Laharpe, Maſſena, and Servona. The Auſtrian general, Provera, was taken priſoner in a third engagement; in conſequence of which, forty field pieces, with the horſes, mules, and artillery waggons, &c. were captured by the French, 2,500 of the allies killed, and 8,000 made priſoners. In ſhort, the battles of Milleſimo, Dego, Mondovi, Monte Lerino, and Montenotte, were deciſive of the fate of Sardinia; for the aged and ſuperſtitious monarch then ſeated on the throne, found himſelf reduced to the humiliating ſituation of relinquiſhing Savoy and Nice, and ſubſcribing to ſuch terms as were granted by a generous conqueror, who could have driven him from his throne, and obliged him to have ſpent the ſhort remainder of a wretched life in exile, and poſſibly in poverty.

"The battle of Lodi, fought on the 21ſt Floreal, (May 10th) nearly completed the overthrow of the Auſtrian power in Italy, and added greatly to the reputation of the French arms. On this occaſion, a battalion of grenadiers bore down all before them, and reached the bridge of Lodi ſhouting, 'Long live the republic!' But the dreadful fire kept up by the enemy having ſtopped their progreſs, Generals Berthier, Maſſena, Cervoni, &c. ruſhed forward: even their preſence would have proved ineffectual, had it not been for the intrepidity of Bonaparte, who ſnatching a ſtandard from the hand of a ſubaltern, like Cæſar, on a ſimilar occaſion, placed himſelf in the front, and animating his ſoldiers by his actions and geſticulations, (for his voice was drowned by the noiſe of the cannon and muſquetry) victory once more arranged herſelf under the Gallic banners.

"In conſequence of this ſignal defeat, or rather ſeries of defeats, the veteran Beaulieu was obliged to yield the palm to a younger rival, for he felt himſelf reduced to the neceſſity of retreating with the ſhattered remains of his army among the mountains of Tyrol; on which, the French took poſſeſſion of the greater part of Lombardy, and acquired aſtoniſhing reſources, and immenſe magazines.

"After

Montenotte, lying between Voltri and Savona. The poſſeſſion of this poſt was abſolutely neceſſary to cutting off the retreat of the diviſion of the French, whom they

" After croſſing the Mincio in the face of the Auſtrians, the republican army entered Verona, which ſo lately had afforded an aſylum to one of the titular Kings of France, and ſeized on Pavia. Here a new and more dreadful enemy attempted to arreſt the progreſs of the conquerors. It was *ſuperſtition*, cloathed in cowls and ſurplices, brandiſhing a poniard in one hand and a crucifix in the other! But the ſpeedy puniſhment of the prieſts and adherents put an end to the inſurrection, and thus ſaved Bonaparte and his army from a more imminent danger than they had yet experienced, and from which no French army that has hitherto croſſed the Alps has been exempt.

" At length Mantua remained alone in the poſſeſſion of the Auſtrians, and this ſtrong city was alſo ſoon inveſted by the victors, who, at the ſame time, made inroads into the Tyrol, and by the battle of Roveredo and the poſſeſſion of Trent, became maſters of the paſſes that led to Vienna. In the mean time, the gallant Wurmſer determined to ſhut himſelf up, with the remainder of his diſpirited troops, in Mantua; and the Auſtrians made one more grand effort, by means of General Alvinzy, to reſcue his beſieged army, and regain their ancient preponderance in Italy. But the battle of Arcolo completely diſappointed their expectations; and the capture of Mantua, at one and the ſame time, concluded the campaign, and completed their humiliation.

" In the winter of 1796, General Bonaparte was united in marriage to Madame Beauharnois, a beautiful French woman, who had experienced a variety of perſecutions during the reign of Robeſpierre. Her former huſband had attained the rank of General in the ſervice of the republic, and had always conducted himſelf as a friend to liberty. He, however, fell a victim to the terroriſts. M. Barras at length, luckily for her, extended his protection to the beautiful widow, who is now the wife of his friend.

" In the campaign of 1797, the command of the combined imperial army was committed to the Archduke Charles; and that the hero of Kehla ſhould oppoſe the hero of Italy. The conteſt, however, was not long between birth and genius; between a young man of illuſtrious extraction, ſurrounded by flatterers, and educated in the corrupting circle of a court, and a hardy Corſican, brought up amidſt dangers, breathing the ſpirit of ancient republics; acquainted with all the machinery of modern warfare, directing every thing under his own eye—whoſe miſtreſs was the commonwealth, and whoſe companion was—PLUTARCH.

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they had previouſly defeated; and as it appeared probable that the Auſtrians would renew the attack with their whole force, Bonaparte ſent a diviſion, under General Maſſena, to take advantage of the night, and gain the rear of the Auſtrian army.

General Beaulieu, having reinforced his army, began the attack at break of day, the ſucceſs was various, and the victory remained undecided until the diviſion under General Maſſena, who had been ſent round by Bonaparte, appeared on the left and rear. Unable to withſtand this ſhock, the Auſtrian army was thrown into confuſion, and, being completely routed, was purſued by the French to Cairo. Their loſs amounted to 3,500 men, of whom 2,000 were priſoners.

This victory was followed by one yet more ſignal and deciſive at the village of Milleſimo. Bonaparte taking advantage of the diſorder of the Auſtrians, puſhed forward and gained poſſeſſion of Cairo, a poſt on the Bormida, which commanded the roads leading to Turin, and

" The war on the continent may be ſaid to be at an end. An Emperor and a Pope humbled—the imperial crown reduced to nearly an empty name, and the pontifical one at the will of the conqueror. Kings and ſtates overthrown, and a new and formidable republic raiſed in the heart of Europe, while ſhe beheld the overthrow of five mighty armies, commanded by gallant and experienced officers.—Such is the ſummary of the political efforts and martial achievments of a General who has not as yet (1796) attained the thirtieth year of his age.

" As to his perſon, Bonaparte is of ſmall ſtature, but admirably proportioned. He is of a ſpare habit of body, yet robuſt and qualified to undergo the greateſt hardſhips and fatigues. His complection, like that of all the males of ſouthern climates, is olive; his eyes blue, his chin prominent, the lower part of his face thin, and his forehead ſquare and projecting.

" In reſpect to his mind, he poſſeſſes uncommon attainments. He converſes freely, and without pedantry, on all ſubjects, and writes and ſpeaks with fluency and eloquence. Above all things, he has in a great degree made himſelf maſter of his paſſions. He is abſtemious at his meals, and was never ſeen, in the ſlighteſt degree, intoxicated; he has many friends, but no minions; and preſerves an inviolable ſecrecy, by means of a rigorous ſilence."

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and into Lombardy. The Auſtrians retreating along the mountains to the left of this river, halted at Milleſimo; the defiles leading to which village, were forced by General Angerau on the 11th of April, who ſurrounded a diviſion of 1,500 grenadiers, commanded by the Auſtrian general, Provera; but this officer, inſtead of ſurrendering, threw himſelf into the ruins of an old caſtle on the ſummit of Mount Coſſaria, where he threw up entrenchments.

After a ſevere cannonade of ſeveral hours, a general attack was made in four columns on this poſt, in which the French were repulſed, with the loſs of two of the Generals who commanded the aſſault; and Provera keeping firm in his poſition, ſtopped the progreſs of the French army for five days, and gave time to the Auſtrians to recover their diſorder, and recruit their forces. On the fifth day the armies prepared for a general action. Angerau, who commanded the left wing of the French army, ſtill held Provera blockaded in the ruins of the caſtle. The Auſtrians and Piedmonteſe attempting to force the centre, were repulſed with great loſs; and their left wing, which was flanked by the village of Dego, where they were ſtrongly entrenched, was turned by General Maſſena. General Laharpe, in the mean time, paſſing the Bormida, with his diviſion in cloſe columns, ſucceeded in turning the right flank of the left wing of the Auſtrian army; and while the diviſion under General Cervoni marched directly towards the centre, General Boyer, with a third diviſion, threw himſelf in their rear, with the deſign to cut off their retreat. The Auſtrians loſt upwards of 10,000 men in this action, of whom 8,000 were priſoners, with thirty-two pieces of cannon, and fifteen pairs of colours; and General Povera with his garriſon ſurrendered themſelves priſoners of war.

On the following day, while the French were indulging themſelves in ſecurity after the fatigues of the battle, they were ſurpriſed at the village of Dego by General Beaulieu at the head of 7,000 men, whom he had rallied.

rallied. The Auſtrians diſlodged the French from this poſt, and repulſed them three ſeveral times, with General Maſſena at their head, in their attempt to retake it. General Cauſſe, whilſt rallying his diviſion, was mortally wounded. The day had far advanced before its fate was decided. The Auſtrians maintained their poſitions with obſtinate valour; but preſſed by the French troops who had been rellied by Bonaparte, they were at length obliged to retreat, after loſing two thouſand men, of whom fourteen hundred were made priſoners.

In conſequence of the victory at Dego, the Piedmonteſe army evacuated the poſt of Monteſimo; in conſequence of which Angerau was enabled to effect a junction with the diviſion that had penetrated acroſs the mountains from Oneglia, and afterwards marched on to attack the enemy's entrenched camp, before Ceva, of which, after a ſlight reſiſtance, he gained poſſeſſion, as well as of the town. The Piedmonteſe, in retreating towards Turin, had taken advantageous poſitions at the confluence of the rivers Cuaglia and Tanaro, on the banks of which they placed batteries, ſo as to render their flank unaſſailable; and, aſſembling the weight of of their forces on the right, had forced the left of the French army to retreat; when General Maſſena, having croſſed the Tanaro, near Ceva, during the night of the 20th of April, and marched along its banks to the village of Lozengo, and Bonaparte having made diſpoſitions to march forwards to Mandovi, the Piedmonteſe general, Count Colli, dreading the iſſue of a conteſt where he might eaſily be ſurrounded, and his retreat cut off, withdrew to that place during the night. At day-break, the French attacked him at the entrance of the village of Vico; the redoubt which covered the centre of the Piedmonteſe army was taken, and Mondovi itſelf, on the ſame day, fell into the hands of the French. Numerous towns, and poſts, now ſurrendered, and General Angerau took poſſeſſion of the fortified town of Alba.

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The Piedmonteſe finding it now impoſſible to withſtand the force of the republicans, retreated ſtill further towards the capital of Turin, from whence the French were now diſtant but twenty-four miles. General Angerau was alſo about to paſs the Tanaro on the right flank of the retreating army. Thus ſituated, with no proſpect of effective defence for the capital, Count Colli, on the 23d of April, propoſed a ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities, while his Sardinian Majeſty ſhould ſend his miniſter to Genoa to treat for peace with the ambaſſador of the republic. The conditions of the ſuſpenſion of arms were dictated by Bonaparte; and the march of the French troops to the walls of Turin was prevented only by this timely ſubmiſſion.

The French taking poſſeſſion of the fortreſſes ſtipulated by the armiſtice, his Sardinian Majeſty ſent his miniſters to Paris, who concluded a treaty of peace with the republic, on the 17th of May. Piedmont lying completely at the mercy of the conquerors, the King was compelled to ſubmit to whatever conditions were propoſed. By this treaty, he agreed to withdraw himſelf, in the moſt unequivocal manner, from every alliance, offenſive or defenſive, formed with any of the powers in the coalition againſt the French republic; to renounce, both for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, for ever, all title to Savoy, Nice, and the country now forming the department of the maritime Alps; to determine the limits of the reſpective contries by new demarcations, advantageous to the republic; and to grant a full and entire amneſty to all thoſe of his ſubjects who had been, or were proſecuted, for political opinions. In addition to the places ſtipulated in the armiſtice, which were to be put in the poſſeſſion of the French, they had granted to them other fortreſſes both on the frontiers of France and Lombardy; while the fortifications of two of which on the frontiers of France, Suſa and Brunetta, were to be diſmantled at his own expence, under the direction of commiſſaries appointed by the directory; binding himſelf neither to eſtabliſh

nor to repair any fortification on this part of the frontiers. By this article, the French enſured, what they claimed by another article of the treaty, the free paſſage of their troops at all times into Italy. To fill up the meaſure of his humiliation, the King engaged to apologize by his miniſter, for the conduct obſerved towards the late ambaſſador of France, and to diſavow the inſult which was thus offered to the republic.

This melancholy reverſe of fortune, in ſo ſhort a ſpace of time, excited the commiſeration even of his enemies: and it required the conſideration, that he had been the moſt pertinacious enemy of the revolution,—the moſt obſtinate in refuſing terms of accommodation,—had oppoſed the ſtrongeſt barrier to the entrance of the French into Italy during three campaigns,—and, though in reality a feeble adverſary, had enjoyed by his poſition the advantages of an enemy the moſt formidable; and had ſued for peace only when the enemy was under the walls of his capital, and his whole country at their diſpoſal,—in order to reconcile thoſe hard conditions with that boaſted generoſity which is ſaid to be the characteriſtic of republics.

The paſſage of the Alps, by ſuch apparently inadequate means, in the face of an enemy ſo formidable, has juſtly been a ſubject of aſtoniſhment and admiration. The plan which Bonaparte had conceived with all that temerity of genius which belongs to the new mode of French military tactics, of dividing the Auſtrian and Piedmonteſe armies in the very centre of the enemy's country, and in poſitions which were judged impregnable, was executed with equal intelligence and intrepidity. In this arduous enterpriſe, Bonaparte was ably ſeconded by his Generals, each of whom led on his reſpective diviſion, with that addreſs and preciſion which could alone have enſured ſucceſs in a war among the Alps. The battles of Montenotte, and Milleſimo —the previous movements and ſkirmiſhes,—the detail of the

the various operations of the army—the junction of diſtant columns—and the good poſitions choſen among this chaos of mountains, by theſe youthful commanders, are worthy of fixing the attention of the beſt inſtructed military men. But what will not fail to claim the gratitude of their fellow citizens and the admiration of poſterity, was, the generous manner in which theſe generals devoted their lives, by marching at the head of their columns to almoſt certain deſtruction, and thus inſpiring their ſoldiers with that contempt of danger and of death, which raiſed them into heroes, and carried them even beyond the bounds which theſe Generals while living marked out for their courage.

The cities ceded to the French were Coni, Aleſſandria, and Tortona, to which Marſhall Beaulieu, after his defeat at Dego, and his ſeparation from the Piedmonteſe army, had retreated, in order to cover the Milaneſe from the further incurſions of the French. Conſtrained to evacuate theſe fortreſſes, he paſſed the Po at Valenza, and laboured with great diligence to defend the paſſages of that river, as well as thoſe of Gogna and Teffino, as he judged, from the convention made by the French general with the King of Sardinia for the delivery of Valenza, that the paſſage of the French would be effected by that route. Bonaparte favoured that miſtake, by making a variety of feigned preparations and military evolutions; and, while the Auſtrian general was waiting his attack on the left of the Po, paſſed on to Caſtel St. Gioamei on the right ſide of the river, with a detachment of his army; and had advanced twenty leagues into Lombardy, before his march was diſcovered; Marſhal Beaulieu, on perceiving his error, advanced with rapid marches along the Po, in the hope of arriving in ſufficient time to prevent the paſſage, whenever Bonaparte ſhould attempt to effect it. But he arrived too late. The French general had reached Placentia, early in the morning of the 7th of May, the day after his departure from before Valenza: and having

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ing ſeized on the boats, barges, and rafts, in the vicinity of the place, the whole of the army effected the paſſage in the courſe of the day. Apprized that a conſiderable diviſion of Auſtrians were approaching in order to oppoſe the paſſage, Bonaparte marched with the forces which had already paſſed the river, and met them at the village of Fombio, where they had entrenched themſelves with twenty pieces of cannon. After a vigorous reſiſtance, the Auſtrians retreated with loſs.

In the mean while, another body of Auſtrians were advancing to ſupport the diviſion which had been poſted at Fombio, and had reached the head-quarters of General Laharpe at Codogno. A ſlight action took place, in which the Auſtrians were repulſed; but the French army experienced a very ſevere loſs in the death of their General, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf with ſo much bravery at Montenotte and Melliſimo. General Berthier arrived in the interval, and purſued the enemy to Caſal, of which he took poſſeſſion.

The Dukes of Parma and of Modena, on whoſe territories the French had entered, and who did not expect ſo ſudden an attack, were compelled to requeſt a ſuſpenſion of arms, which was granted, on condition of the payment of ten millions of livres to repleniſh the exhauſted magazines of the army; and of contributing to the national muſeum at Paris, a certain number of the moſt celebrated paintings, at the choice of the General, or commiſſioners named for that purpoſe; and finally, ſending ambaſſadors to Paris to treat with the directory for peace.

The Auſtrians, defeated at Fombio, had made good their retreat to Lodi, on the river Addi, where Marſhal Beaulieu had concentrated his forces. On the approach of the French, they had abandoned the town with ſo much precipitation, that they had not had time to deſtroy the bridge, which was, however, defended by a conſiderable artillery; and the imperial troops were drawn up in line of battle to prevent their paſſage.

ſage. A ſevere cannonade took place for ſome hours; but the ſhew of reſiſtance made by the Auſtrians appeared ſo formidable, that the French generals were, for ſome time, undecided with reſpect to the manner of the attack. To paſs the bridge, in the face of the Auſtrian army ſo advantageouſly poſted, was procuring certain deſtruction to numbers of brave and gallant men; and therefore, in the deliberation which took place between the French generals, the majority were of opinion that the paſſage ſhould be attempted at places, ſome diſtance both above and below the town, where the reſiſtance would be conſiderably weakened, if not rendered ineffective. Bonaparte, however, full of confidence in his ſoldiers, and feeling that delay was more injurious to his plan of operations than the loſs to be incurred by marching up to the batteries of the Auſtrians, gave poſitive orders that the attack ſhould be made by the bridge. Accordingly before day-break, the army, no ways diſmayed, prepared for the enterprize; and a column of carbineers, followed by a battalion of grenadiers, paſſed half-way the bridge before they were perceived by the Auſtrians. A general diſcharge deſtroyed about 700; the advanced body of the column was ſtruck with terror, and ſtopped ſhort. But animated by the ſhouts of "Vive la Republique!" from the Generals who ſaw the danger, and who threw themſelves at their head, they ruſhed forwards with irreſiſtible impetuoſity, ſeized the Auſtrian artillery, broke through the lines, and throwing the whole into diſorder, ended the conteſt by diſperſing the imperial troops. While one part of the republican forces purſued Beaulieu towards Mantua, the reſt entered Milan on the 18th of May without further reſiſtance; and the French armies gained poſſeſſion of the whole of Lombardy.

While France, by the ſucceſs of her arms, was leſſening the numbers, and diminiſhing the ſtrength of her enemies in Europe, ſhe found her influence decreaſing in the United States of America. Though

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little was to have been expected from national gratitude, it was ſuppoſed that national honour would have prevented the American government from ſeizing the opportunity, when the French republic was ſtruggling for her political exiſtence, to throw itſelf into the arms of its moſt potent enemy. It was therefore with equal ſurpriſe and indignation, that the French government heard of the concluſion of the treaty, which was formed by Mr. Jay, between that country and England; the tenor of which was ſo evidently in oppoſition to treaties already exiſting between America and France, that it was concluded that an open breach between the two nations muſt have been the unavoidable conſequence.

A letter from General Waſhington, the American preſident, to a Mr. Morris, who was lately the American ambaſſador in France, was ſaved from the wreck of the Boſton packet, which had foundered on the coaſt of France, fully diſcloſed a correſpondence with the Britiſh government, highly inimical to the French republic. The directory, however, determined, at preſent, to continue the ſemblance of friendſhip with the United States, contented itſelf with following the ſame conduct with reſpect to their veſſels bound to England, as England had done, throughout the war, with reſpect to American veſſels bound to France.

The Britiſh executive government were not unconcerned ſpectators of the triumphant and unexampled progreſs of the republican arms of France; and anxiouſly concerned for the intereſts of thoſe powers whom their policy and ſubſidizing had drawn into a hoſtile and dangerous ſituation.—With deep concern they had juſt beheld one of their moſt ſteady allies, the King of Sardinia, ſtript of the beſt part of his dominions, nor did they doubt but that a ſpirit of reſentment, as well as of ambition, would incite the executive government of France to attempt the conqueſt of the poſſeſſions of all their other allies. On that account, on the 8th of March, the Engliſh cabinet, by the agency of its ambaſſador

baſſador to the Helvetic States, communicated to the government of France a ſeries of propoſitions relative to a general pacification. The apparent motive of this communication was to aſcertain whether there was any diſpoſition in France to open a negociation with his Britannic Majeſty and his allies, for the eſtabliſhment of a general peace, on juſt and equitable conditions; and whether, for this purpoſe, it would be agreed to appoint a congreſs to arrange the terms; whether France would ſignify what her intentions were with reſpect to the baſis of a general pacification, or whether ſhe had any other mode to propoſe, whereby that end could be attained.

The French directory, although not inſenſible of the diſreſpectful manner in which this communication wa made, yet anxious, amidſt all its triumphs, to evince its diſpoſitions for peace, frankly anſwered, that it was its ſincere deſire to make peace, and detailed the conditions on which it was willing and prepared to offer it, of which one was indiſpenſible, namely, that of retaining the provinces in the Low Countries, which, by the conſtitutional act, had been united to the French republic.

Theſe propoſitions, as might have been foreſeen, were immediately declared by the Engliſh miniſtry as utterly inadmiſſible; while on the other hand, the French government felt itſelf mortified in having been made the dupe of the application, and thereby ſullied the dignity of the republic. Yet this was the invariable mode of policy purſued by the ancient Romans; they ſtill liſtened to propoſals for peace, even in the moſt ſplendid career of their victories; although they generally impoſed upon the vanquiſhed what additional expences had been incurred by the republic.

The ſituation of France at this period, was ſuch as to enable the government to take a review of the hoſtile diſpoſitions which ſeveral of the Swiſs cantons had evinced towards it at the commencement of the war, and

and which were continued till they were awed into reſpect by the rapid victories of that people.

The directory, therefore, on the 26th of March, demanded from the magiſtracy of Baſle, as being the neareſt canton, and that which lay between the army of the empire, and that of the republic, an explanation concerning certain plans, ſuppoſed to have been formed by the coaleſced powers, of violating the neutrality. It was aſſerted, that with the aid of ſeveral of the citizens of various cantons of Switzerland, and with the connivance of the government of Baſle, the Auſtrians had projected the invaſion of the departments which formerly compoſed the province of Franche Compte', by paſſing over the narrow portion of the territory of Baſle which divides France from the imperial dominions in Frickthal, and lies along the Rhone from Baſle to Scaffhauſen.

The manner of conveying theſe ſentiments of the French directory to the government of Baſle, which was only by way of extract from their regiſters, was as humiliating as the accuſation. The magiſtrates ſhewed in their anſwers, how ſtrongly they felt this contempt; and, after remarking the novelty of the mode of application, denied the charge, and complained of the hoſtile manner in which it was made; at the ſame time, declaring, in the reply to the inſinuation of the French government, that "if they were not ſufficiently ſtrong to defend their own territory, the directory muſt take meaſures to enſure the ſafety of the French republic," that they accepted the reſponſibility impoſed on them by the French government, and that they could not only depend on the inhabitants of their own canton, but on thoſe of the whole Helvetic confederation.

The tone of this explanation cauſed further umbrage to the haughty republicans; and the directory made another remonſtrance, demanding a more formal exculpation from the charge. This ſecond remonſtrance wore too formidable an aſpect to be treated otherwiſe than with the moſt ſerious attention. Accordingly, it was

was determined by the cantons to ſend an ambaſſador to Paris to confer with the directory. The embaſſy was entruſted to Mr. Ochs, the chancellor of Baſle, whoſe known attachment to the cauſe of the revolution was likely to render his miſſion ſucceſsful. The proper explanations took place between the envoy and the French government, and terminated in a temporary confirmation of amity between the two republics.

Tranquillity had for ſome time paſt been enjoyed undiſturbed at Paris; where the different factions were overawed by the government, who had created a ſeventh miniſter, with the title of the miniſter of police; yet the ſouth of France was delivered up to the moſt dreadful diſorders. This country had been moſt frequently the theatre of violence and bloodſhed from the beginning of the revolution; and during the reign of terror, had felt the moſt fatal effects of Jacobinical proſcription. The glaciere of Avignon, the fuſillades at Lyons, and the commiſſion of the revolutionary tribunal at Orange, make a memorable part of the hiſtory of that ſanguinary period. The authors of theſe maſſacres had been delivered up to puniſhment; but the ſame juſtice had not been exerciſed on all who commanded or perpetrated theſe revolutionary murders.

Commiſſioners were accordingly ſent into that country, and had almoſt healed the wide wounds inflicted on theſe unhappy departments, when the Jacobin faction once more ſent a perſon named Freron, of a very different diſpoſition from that of the wiſe and prudent Barras, his colleague in a former miſſion. Being inveſted with the commiſſion of commiſſary general of the executive power, his arrival was again the ſignal of the return of terror. Clothed with the ſupreme authority, he broke the departmental adminiſtrations named by the people, and filled the vacancies with men covered with crimes and blood! For four months that unhappy country groaned under this revolutionary *regime*, which had ſpread univerſal terror and deſola-

tion. It was then that the directory at laſt yielded to the repeated reclamations of the oppreſſed inhabitants, and intimated to the ſanguinary Freron, that he was no longer a portion of the conſtituent power. This barbarian was in no haſte to diveſt himſelf of his proconſular authority; nor was it till the directory had peremptorily ordered one of its commiſſioners in the ſouth to notify its diſpleaſure to him, that he at laſt returned to Paris.

The diſtracted ſtate of the ſouth of France called for the immediate interpoſition of government; the legiſlature therefore ordered a commiſſion to be inſtituted to enquire into the cauſe of the troubles which ſo fatally raged there.

An inſurrection that broke out in the department of Nievre, where the inſurgents, under the title of the Company of the King, and of Jeſus, had taken poſſeſſion of the town of Sancerre, with ſome other inſurrections, was happily ſuppreſſed. The directory diſcovered that the ſource of all their national broils and inquietude originated, uniformly, from the turbulent and reſtleſs Jacobins; of conſequence, they wiſely diſperſed their aſſemblies, and ordered their places of meeting to be ſhut up.

The directory had now declared hoſtilities againſt this implacable faction, whoſe boldneſs increaſed in proportion to the reſiſtance they encountered. Further meaſures of ſeverity were exerciſed againſt them, ſuch as laws to puniſh with death, ſeditious aſſemblies, incitements to the re-eſtabliſhment of royalty, or of the conſtitution of Robeſpierre. The Jacobins perceiving that theſe decrees were directly levelled againſt them, formed the daring project of ſubverting the whole government, and introducing once more the revolutionary *regime*.

The government were partly led to the diſcovery of this Jacobin conſpiracy, by the unguarded expreſſions of Drouet, one of their number, and the celebrated poſt-maſter at Varennes who had arreſted Louis XVI.

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and had been elevated to the dignity of a legiſlator, without any other qualification for the office than that proof which he had thus given of his hatred of Kings. Drouet diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the early days of terror, by ſome ſpeeches, in which he called for blood and pillage, with a degree of vigour which evinced him to be a proper colleague of Robeſpierre and his aſſociates.

The conſpirators were purſued with vigour, and their haunts were diſcovered: yet their confederation was ſo numerous, and their influence ſo powerful, that it was thought proper to triple the guard of the directory and of the legiſlative body; the ſtreets were patroled, and the gar-lens of the Luxembourg were ſhut, which, along with the Thuilleries and the Pont Neuf, were ſtrongly guarded. On the 9th of May, the council of five hundred received a meſſage from the executive directory, informing them, that a horrible conſpiracy was prepared to burſt forth the following morning at break of day: that the deſign of the conſpirators was, to murder the executive directory, the members of the two councils, the field officers, the conſtituted authorities of Paris, and to deliver up the city to pillage and maſſacre! That the government, informed of the place where the conſpirators were aſſembled, had ſeized them, and was obliged to add, with regret, that of the number was Drouet, one of their own colleagues.

Among the conſpirators were Laignelot, who was a man of letters, but a profeſſed atheiſt—Chaſles and Ricard, well known terroriſts—Babeuf, once the aſſociate of Marat, giving himſelf the title of "Gracchus Babeuf, the tribune of the people!"—Roſignol, an ex-general of La Vendee, famous for the horrors he committed in that country—Julien, a young man who, at twenty-two years of age, had been the confidential agent of Robeſpierre, and had led numbers of innocent perſons to the ſcaffold—Amar, a noted terroriſt, who was a member of the committee of general ſafety in the days of Robeſpierre, and who framed the act of accuſation againſt the party of Gironde; he was arreſted near the

the very ſpot where he himſelf had arreſted Rabaut St. Etienne, and dragged him to the ſcaffold These aſſaſſins, with ſome others, were ſeized very opportunely for the intereſt of humanity; as it appears from the papers which were ſent by the directory to the council of five hundred, that of the various plans of conſpiracy, which from the beginning had convulſed the French republic, none had been more completely organized, or more daring than this, happily detected.

The aim of the conſpiracy was to overthrow the government entirely. But it appears that there were two plans, one known to all the conſpirators, the other only to a ſmall number; and theſe latter had formed, what they called an inſurrectional ſecret directory of public ſafety, conſiſting of four perſons, who propoſed, when the inſurrection was over, to ſacrifice many of their aſſociates, who were not initiated in their ſecret projects, and to ſpare ſome perſons who now appear to have been involved in the common proſcription. This vaſt machine of conſpiracy was organized with ſo much ingenuity, that the agents were not to know each other; ſo that if one proved unfaithful, or was ſeized, it was only neceſſary to aſſaſſinate his immediate ſuperior, in order to conceal effectually all traces of conſpiracy from the government. There is no doubt but, had the conſpirators prevailed, Paris would have become a ſcene of horror, beyond any which it had yet experienced in the courſe of a ſanguinary revolution.

A high criminal court at Vendome was inſtituted to try the conſpirators; ſome ſuffered death; Drouet eſcaped; and ſome were pardoned.

The diſcovery of this conſpiracy, produced, as might be expected, the moſt general ſatisfaction throughout France, except among the royaliſts and Jacobins.

After the diſcovery of the plot, the Jacobins endeavoured to impreſs the public with the opinion that it was framed by the royaliſts. This gained little credit; but it is not at all improbable, that ſome emiſſaries of foreign powers might inſinuate themſelves into the

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councils of the Jacobins, and incite them to thoſe ferocious acts of outrage, which, after producing a ſcene of the moſt horrible carnage, and deſtroying numbers of republicans, might probably end by the wearied people ſeeking for relief in monarchy from ſuch repeated and intolerable evils.

While a train ſo dangerous, and well calculated to effect an exploſion which threatened the deſtruction of thouſands in France, the Auſtrian commander in chief announced to the French general the termination of the armiſtice on the Rhine, on May 31ſt. The imperial troops were in poſſeſſion of the larger portion of the palatinate, from Landau to Bingen. The army of the Rhine and Moſelle, and the right wing of the army of the Sambre and Meuſe, prevented them from penetrating to the banks of the Moſelle, and to Luxembourg: while the left wing of the latter army was entrenched at Duſſeldorf, on the right ſide of the Rhine.

The maſterly and deciſive blow which the French meditated againſt the imperial power, was to obtain poſſeſſion of the city of Mentz, which was the only poſt of importance held by the Auſtrians on the weſt of the river. Being poſſeſſed of this ſtrong barrier they would thereby become maſters of the whole of the country on the left ſide of the Rhine. Several armies had already dwindled away before Mentz; and ſo formidable were the additions made to its original ſtrength on the ſide which was oppoſed to the French, that no hope of ſucceſs was entertained until the communication could be cut off on the German ſide.

The French were ſucceſsful in their firſt operations: while the army of the Rhine and Moſelle, and the right wing of the army of the Sambre and Meuſe, attacked the Auſtrians in the Palatinate, the left wing of this laſt army, poſted at Duſſeldorf aſcending the right ſide of the Rhine, attacked the Auſtrians who were poſted on the banks of the Sieg, a river which empties itſelf into the Rhine, nearly oppoſite to Cologne. This victory

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at the paſſage of the Sieg, was followed by another ſtill more deciſive at Altenkirchen, (on the 4th of June) a village a few miles diſtant from the Sieg, on the road to Mentz; where the imperial troops, under the Prince of Wurtemburgh, were ſtrongly poſted to prevent the dangerous progreſs of the republicans in that direction.

The troops of the empire, after ſuffering conſiderable loſs, were compelled to retreat acroſs the Lahn, a river emptying itſelf into the Rhine, above the fortreſs of Ehrenbreitſtein, and ſtill further on the road to Mentz. The French had croſſed this river in purſuit of the retreating army, and had inveſted this fortreſs, which was a place of uncommon ſtrength, when the Archduke perceiving the danger of ſuffering the republicans to advance further in the rear of the army, found it neceſſary to change his mode of defence, and concert another plan of operations.

To effect this, about June 8th, he withdrew the greater part of the imperial troops from the Hunſdruch, where he had held in check the army of the Rhine and Moſelle, under Moreau; and leaving Mentz and Manheim, which he had hitherto covered with the moſt conſiderable part of his forces, with a ſufficient number to repel any ſudden attacks, marched acroſs the Rhine with ſuch reinforcements as rendered the Auſtrian army on the right ſide, which had been hitherto retreating, greatly ſuperior to the aſſailants. This able manœuvre was conſtrued, by the French generals and commiſſioners belonging to the army in the Palatinate, into a flight. But the army on the right ſide, which had hitherto been purſuing the Auſtrians towards Mentz, and which were now advanced within a ſhort diſtance of this town, ſoon felt the effects of theſe operations; ſince, before Jourdan, who had foreſeen this manœuvre, could gain time from the badneſs of the roads, and the length of the march, to ſtrengthen the army, the Auſtrians attacked it with great fury, and compelled it, with conſiderable loſs, to take its former poſition, whence they had begun their operations. The army of the Sambre and

and Meuſe retired within the lines of Duſſeldorf, and that of the Rhine and Moſelle, repaſſed the Rhine at Nieuwied. The evacuation of the Palatinate by the Auſtrians, who were now employed in purſuit of the retreating armies of the French on the right ſide of the river, left the army of the Rhine and the Moſelle, which had taken poſſeſſion of the territory abandoned by the imperialiſts, once more in the preſence of Mentz and Manheim, without the poſſibility of gaining any advantage by its poſition.

This ſecond defeat before Mentz, though leſs fatal than the loſs ſuſtained in the laſt campaign, convinced the French of the impracticability of their project, and led them to form a new plan of operations, which embraced a greater object, and which was more conſonant to their lately adopted mode of military tactics and their own adventrous and enterprizing ſpirit. While, therefore, the diviſion of the imperial forces which had been left to cover the Rhine, and the garriſons of Mentz and Manheim, ſuppoſed themſelves to be holding in check the French forces under General Moreau, this general, keeping up the ſemblance of hoſtilities, and feigning preparations of making ſerious attacks in that quarter, drew off his troops in the greateſt ſecrecy, and by forced marches arrived at Straſbourg, before the Auſtrians knew that he had changed his poſition.

(June 24th). The object of this expedition was to effect the paſſage of the Rhine, oppoſite to this city; and to gain poſſeſſion of the fort of Kehl, a poſt of conſiderable importance on the German ſide. Moreau had taken meaſures to make this attack in different places; but a ſudden ſwell of the river prevented the execution of his deſign, as ſome of the iſlands with which that river abounds, and by which he had hoped to effect the paſſage, were covered with water, and the reſt which were defended by the Auſtrians, were thus rendered more difficult of acceſs. Moreau had taken the neceſſary precautions to conceal his intentions of attack from

from the enemy, as the leaſt ſuſpicion of his project would have fruſtrated its execution; but this unexpected obſtacle obliged him to ſupply by courage what he had hoped to have effected by addreſs. Having made preparations for the paſſage during the night, and finding it impoſſible to effect a landing immediately on the oppoſite ſide of the river, of which he gained poſſeſſion without much reſiſtance, and ſeizing on the bridge communicating with the main land, which ſuch of the Auſtrians as had eſcaped had not had time to deſtroy in their flight. Although the French troops had made good their landing, they found themſelves without cavalry or artillery, ſince it was impoſſible to tranſport either to the oppoſite ſide. The rapidity of the current prevented the eſtabliſhment of any bridge; and the only reſource left, was that of ſending back the boats by which the firſt party had effected their landing, to tranſport the remainder of the army.

The reinforcements which now arrived, not only reſcued the French from their perilous ſituation, but enabled them, though unprovided with artillery, except the few pieces they had juſt taken in the iſlands, to attempt the fortreſs. The firſt redoubts were attacked with deſperate fury, the Auſtrians being buried under heaps of ſtones by the aſſailants. The artillery taken in the firſt redoubts were employed to force the ſucceſſive ones; and, the Auſtrian general finding further reſiſtance fruitleſs, ſaved the remainder of his own troops by abandoning the fortreſs to the French. The achievement of this bold and hazardous enterpriſe, not only opened the Briſgaw to the French, but, as the diviſion under General Wurmſer had been greatly weakened by detaching a conſiderable force to the aſſiſtance of the Auſtrian army in Italy, this irruption, independent of other advantages that might be expected to reſult from it, was calculated to make a powerful diverſion in Prince Charles's army, and allow the army of the

the Sambre and the Meuſe, under Jourdan, to commence its offenſive operations.

The diſperſion of the Auſtrian army in Italy, of which a part took refuge in Mantua, and the reſt, purſued by the French, had gained the mountains of the Tyrol, the chain of Alps which ſeparate Italy from Germany, gave the French general leiſure to carry on his various enterprizes againſt the reſpective ſtates of Italy. The garriſon of the fortreſs of Milan, finding further reſiſtance ineffectual, and having no proſpect of relief, ſurrendered themſelves priſoners of war. A detachment took poſſeſſion of Leghorn on the 28th of June, though belonging to a neutral power, on the pretext of diſlodging the Engliſh, whoſe property was confiſcated to the uſe of the republic; while the main army entered the territory of the Pope, and without reſiſtance took poſſeſſion of the cities of Bologna, Ferrara, and Urbino. This expedition, which gave the French the command of the poſſeſſions of the Holy See, alarmed the King of Naples in ſo great a degree, that he requeſted an armiſtice, which was granted to him, as alſo to his holineſs the Pope.

The conditions impoſed on the Neapolitans were chiefly thoſe of withdrawing their troops from the ſupport of the coalition, and their veſſels from the Engliſh ſquadron in the Mediterranean; thoſe impoſed on the Pope were more circumſtantial and more rigorous. Among other contributions levied in Italy, on the conquered ſtates, that of furniſhing pictures was not the leaſt conſiderable. The ſtates of Parma and Modena had been highly taxed in this article; and it was not to be expected that the capital of the arts, (Rome) the great repoſitory of what is the richeſt and moſt curious in the labours of the chiſel and of the pencil, would eſcape the attention of theſe *dilettanti*, theſe admirers of the fine arts, and particularly of their illuſtrious commander, Bonaparte. On that account, the principal conditions impoſed on the Pope were heavy contributions on the monuments of the fine arts. His holineſs,

by theſe articles, was alſo compelled to ſet at liberty thoſe perſons who were at that time confined for their political conduct or opinions; to renounce the friendſhip of his former allies, and to ſhut his ports againſt them; to ſurrender to the French the cities of which they already had poſſeſſion, as well as the citadel of Ancona, which gave them the command of the Adriatic; to pay twenty-one millions of French money, independent of the contributions to be levied on the cities of which the French had already taken poſſeſſion; and to deliver one hundred pictures, buſts, vaſes, or ſtatues, at the option of commiſſioners who ſhould be ſent to Rome for that purpoſe; among which ſtatues were expreſsly named thoſe of Junius and Marcus Brutus, both of which were in the capitol; and alſo five hundred manuſcripts to be ſelected by the ſaid commiſſion. The laſt articles of this treaty, and ſimilar ones which had been concluded with the ſtates of Parma and Modena, excited much diſcontent among the profeſſors and amateurs of the fine arts at Paris, who remonſtrated againſt their removal from Rome. Their repreſentations did not alter the determination of the directory; and, however they might have admired the liberal and diſintereſted ſpirit of theſe Pariſian artiſts, yet they adhered to their firſt determination of placing theſe celebrated monuments of exquiſite genius and conſummate art, in the galleries of the national Muſeum at Paris.

General Moreau, by his daring paſſage over the Rhine, reaped all the advantages he had propoſed to himſelf from that expedition. After having driven the imperialiſts from the fortreſs of Kehl, and tranſported thither his cavalry and artillery acroſs the Rhine, by means of a bridge which he had conſtructed, he diſpatched his troops in different diviſions to ſcour the country, and ſucceeded in driving the Auſtrians from the various poſts and camps which they occupied in this quarter; and by theſe means prevented the junction of the detachments ſent by General Wurmſer from Manheim,

heim, with the army of emigrants under the Prince of Conde', who were ſtationed along the upper Rhine.

General Wurmſer's army being very conſiderably weakened by the detachments ſent to reinforce that of Italy, found itſelf incapable of withſtanding the impetuoſity of this rapid and unexpected irruption, and for which no preparations had been made; as an attack in this quarter had by no means been foreſeen. The Archduke Charles was therefore forced to diſcontinue his purſuit of the French on the Lower Rhine, and leaving General Wartenſleben behind him with ſuch forces as he deemed ſufficient to prevent the army under Jourdan, which he had hitherto been purſuing, from paſſing haſtily on his rear, marched with conſiderable reinforcements to the aid of Wurmſer, in order to check the progreſs of the French in the Briſgaw. But this movement of the Archduke did not eſcape the vigilance of Moreau, and he therefore determined to attack the imperialiſts before their reinforcements ſhould arrive. A general engagement accordingly took place on the 28th of June, at Renchen, a village near Philipſburg, on the road to Manheim, in which the French gained a complete victory. General Laroche alſo ſucceeded in diſlodging the troops of the Prince of Wurtemburgh from Mount Knieblis, and the various forteſſes on the immenſe and lofty ridge of mountains which divide the circle of Suabia, under the name of Swartzen Wald, or Black Foreſt. The battle of Renchen was followed, on the 6th of July, by that of Radſtadt, a town ſtill further on the road towards Manheim. As the imperial army had been conſiderably reinforced by detachments from that of the Lower Rhine under Prince Charles, it was enabled to make a more obſtinate reſiſtance. The combat which began ſoon after the break of day, and which had been diſputed on both ſides with various and alternate advantage and loſs, ended at laſt in favour of the republicans, and the imperialiſts were obliged to quit the field of battle.

After

After the imperial troops had been driven from Radſtadt, they choſe advantageous poſitions near the village of Ettingen, where, having received reinforcements, they once more awaited the attack of their victorious opponents. Moreau, who was appriſed that he had to contend with the whole of the imperial troops, except thoſe which Prince Charles had left on the Lower Rhine to check the progreſs of Jourdan's army, ſtrengthened his forces by calling in various diviſions from the different poſts they occupied in the country of which they had already taken poſſeſſion. It appeared, from the diſpoſitions made by the Auſtrians, that this battle was deſtined to decide the conteſt for the ſuperiority on the Rhine. Already had General Jourdan repaſſed the Lahn, after ineffectual reſiſtance on the part of General Wartenſleben, and was now before the gates of Frankfort. The garriſons of Mentz and other fortreſſes on the Rhine were incapable of ſtopping the march of the French, who were now about to paſs in their rear acroſs the Mein; and the ſpace occupied by the imperial armies became every day more narrowed by the approximation of the republican armies, both on the northern and ſouthern ſide.

On the 9th of July a battle was fought at Ettingen, with deſperate valour on both ſides. The Auſtrian general, juſtly conſidering, that on its event, the fate of the Rhine depended, encouraged his troops to repel the fury of the aſſailants four ſeveral times with ſucceſs, from the heights of Rolenſolhe, which was the principal point of attack; nor was it until the French (exaſperated by indignation at theſe ſucceſſive defeats, and ſeeing the field ſtrewed with their dead) had recourſe to the bayonet. This decided in their favour the fortune of the day.

This deciſive battle determined the troops of the empire to retreat into Germany, and abandon the fortreſſes of Mentz, Manheim, Philipſbourg, and Echrenbreitſtein, to their natural defence. A body of troops having

having paſſed the Rhine at Huningue, the French were put in complete poſſeſſion of the whole extent of country lying on the right ſide of that river, from the borders of Holland, to the confines of Switzerland.

Theſe extenſive wars, although the French republic had the peculiar art of making the vanquiſhed nations and ſtates contribute the largeſt proportion of their expence; yet, as the royal Princes, emigrants and others, had carried off a great part of the circulating medium of that country, we are not to wonder that however victorious their arms now were, yet their finances were deeply embarraſſed; war being of that fatal tendency that both victors and the vanquiſhed generally ſuffer by its effects. Accordingly, we find that the committee of finance laid before the legiſlature a general ſtate of the public revenue, by which it appeared, that the expenditure, during the year 1796, amounted to one thouſand million of livres; and the ordinary annual revenue amounted only to five hundred millions. For the remaining five hundred millions, various reſources were pointed out, ſuch as the levy of new taxes, and the ſale of national lands in the newly united provinces of the Netherlands, where religious orders of every kind were at this time wiſely ſuppreſſed as they had been in France. But a plan of rigid public and domeſtic œconomy was ſtrongly enjoined, in place of the wild profuſion which the ſyſtem of paper money had fatally introduced.

The negociations for peace, which had for ſome time been carried on at Paris between the executive directory and the Pope, were ſuddenly interrupted by the precipitate retreat of the negociators on the part of his holineſs, who were ordered to quit France, by a mandate of the directory, iſſued to the miniſter of police. The ambaſſador of the King of Sardinian was ordered alſo to leave the republic: but the mode preſcribed him was leſs mortifying than that enjoined the pontifical negociators. The papal commiſſioners had long

long delayed entering into any definitive arrangement reſpecting the object of their embaſſy, in expectation of hearing ſuch tidings of the ſucceſs of the Auſtrian arms in Italy as would render the conditions more advantageous to the Holy See. While General Wurmſer was on his march with detachments from the army of Germany, theſe ambaſſadors pretended that they were unprovided with ſufficient powers to treat definitively; nor was it till intelligence arrived of freſh victories obtained by the French, that they were found ſufficiently inſtructed to conclude the treaty. To which the directory would now no longer liſten. The diſmiſſion of the Sardinian ambaſſador aroſe only from ſlight murmurs which he had vented on hearing of the march of the German forces to the relief of Italy, mingled with incautions regrets that his maſter had concluded a peace ſo unfavourable to his intereſts, when every thing promiſed the means, had he protracted the definitive treaty, of procuring better conditions than thoſe which had been ſo ſeverely impoſed.

The reſentment of the French directory was not confined to the Sardinian monarch, but was extended likewiſe to other ſtates. For, the miniſter of the Duke of Tuſcany had, ſome months before, received a ſimilar order. Count Carletti had ſhewn ſome ſolicitude for the young Princeſs, the ſurviving daughter of Louis XVIth, on her departure from France; this was thought an evident indication of diſaffection to juſtify the government in ordering that envoy to quit the republic. The real charge, however, brought againſt him was the peculiar activity with which he ſerved the intereſts of the combined powers, by making himſelf the channel of the ſecrets of ſtate, of which he became poſſeſſed by the confidence which his apparent attachment to the republic inſpired in the members of government. Whether the miniſter merited this imputation, or, whether it was ſome perſonal caprice or diſlike of the governing powers, is uncertain; this however may be

be ſaid, that the Duke on his return received every mark of favour and attention from his royal maſter.

The Italian ſtates not only experienced the reſentment of the haughty and imperious republic, but alſo the ambaſſador from the court of Sweden, M. Renhauſen, was diſmiſſed from Paris in the ſame diſgraceful manner as the envoy of the Pope. This court, which, from the death of the late King, and during the war, had ſhewn diſpoſitions not unfavourable to the French republic, had now thrown itſelf, either from policy or from fear, under the influence of the court of Peterſburgh. This meaſure gave umbrage to the executive power of France, and of conſequence the Swediſh envoy was diſmiſſed from Paris. They likewiſe ordered their own envoy to leave the court of Stockholm; the directory conſidering that the dignity of the French nation was degraded in retaining any friendſhip for a court which was now become a dependent on a power in open hoſtilities with the republic. We now proceed to narrate the more active operations of the belligerent powers.

The diſperſion and overthrow of the army under General Beaulieu in Italy, which had afforded Bonaparte the means of conquering the whole of the northern part of that country, was now repaired by the arrival of a new army, compoſed of the flower of the German troops ſerving on the Rhine, under the command of General Wurmſer. His approach revived the hopes of the Italian powers who had not made their definitive arrangements with the French republic, as they cherniſhed the expectation that he was about to become the deliverer of Italy from the imperious yoke of France.

This temporary and pleaſing illuſion of the Italian ſtates ſeemed to acquire reality by the ſucceſs which at firſt crowned the Auſtrian arms; for General Wurmſer having aſſembled what remained of the forces under M. Beaulieu at Trent and Roverido, while he threatened an attack on the whole French line, marched along the Adige with all his forces, and ſuddenly, on the 29th of July,

July, fell upon the poſt of Salo, on the lake of Guarda, and that of Corona, between this lake and the river; which poſts covered the city of Mantua. The loſs of theſe important poſitions was immediately followed by the deliverance of Mantua; from the ſiege of which place the French were driven in great diſorder, with a conſiderable loſs of ſtores and artillery. Emboldened by this ſucceſs, the Auſtrians, after taking poſſeſſion of Salo, whoſe garriſon withdrew to Peſchiera inſtead of Breſcia, as they were ordered, ſeized on this latter place, together with the magazines of the republic and their hoſpitals, and thereby cut off the communication of the French army with Milan.

On the news of this ſucceſs, the Pope ſent his vice-legate to take poſſeſſion of Ferrara, which the French had now evacuated, notwithſtanding the remonſtrances of Azzara the Spaniſh ambaſſador, who repreſented this ſtep as a direct violation of the armiſtice between his holineſs and the republic of France. The vice-legate made his public entrance without the leaſt oppoſition: but when he replaced the arms of the republic with thoſe of the Pope, the citizens of Ferrara immediately aſſembled and affixed thoſe of France.

At this critical moment the poſition of the French was hazardous in the extreme; for while the garriſon of Mantua was now at liberty to act with the Auſtrians on the one ſide, Wurmſer was purſuing Bonaparte on the other. The French general, in danger of being ſurrounded, ſuddenly withdrew his forces from Verona and other parts on the Adige, and by a forced march threw himſelf, with the whole of his army, on the other ſide of Mantua, and regained poſſeſſion of Breſcia. He then brought together his forces between the lake of Guarda and Mantua at Caſtiglione; behind which village Wurmſer had drawn up his forces, after paſſing the Mincio. The French had ſucceeded in retaking their various poſts, and now were prepared to decide the conteſt.

On

On the 15th of Auguſt a fierce and bloody battle was fought, with great obſtinacy and courage, between the French and the Auſtrians, which terminated in the total defeat of the latter, who were compelled to repaſs the Adige, leaving the French once more in the poſſeſſion of the country round Mantua; the ſiege of which place, from the loſs of their heavy artillery, they were obliged to convert into a blockade. This deciſive victory is ſaid to have coſt the Auſtrians 20.000 men, with a prodigious number of priſoners, owing to the prompt ſubmiſſion, or rather defection, of various diviſions who readily grounded their arms, being ſoldiers originally of the Poliſh nation, and who ſeized the favourable moment of conteſt, or defeat, to abandon a ſervice which was hoſtile both to their principles and their feelings; and who afterwards formed a legion, under Poliſh officers, and were incorporated into the armies of the republic. During this dreadful engagement, which laſted ſeveral days from morning till night, the inhabitants of Milan, by offering at the moment of danger to organize batallions and march for the common defence, gave proofs of their attachment to the cauſe of liberty. ſo much the more unequivocal, as the further defeat of the French, whoſe retreat was at firſt cut off, would have rendered the Auſtrians complete maſters of Lombardy.

The republican arms were equally ſucceſsful on the banks of the Rhine, as thoſe in Italy. The battle of Ettingen determined Prince Charles to retreat into Germany. General Moreau, after taking poſſeſſion of Fribourg in the Briſgaw, and of Stutguard (on the 18th of July) which is the capital of Wurtemburgh, croſſed the Necker in purſuit of the diviſion under Prince Charles; and after various ſkirmiſhes, in ſome of which he met with reſiſtance worthy of German bravery, compelled that Prince to retreat acroſs the Danube, making himſelf maſter of the whole circle of Suabia. Jourdan, in the mean time, marched along the Mein through Frankfort, Aſchaffenburg, Wurtzburg, and

Schweinfurt; each of which places ſurrendered at his ſummons; and having puſhed the Auſtrians under Wartenſleben acroſs the Reidnitz (Aug. 1.) at Bamberg, became poſſeſſed of the whole circle of Franconia, threatening, at the ſame time, the territories of the German Princes, and among others the electorate of Saxony, which lay undefended on his left. A diviſion of the army of the Rhine and Moſelle, commanded by Fenrio, had taken poſſeſſion of Conſtance, and of the various fortreſſes on the lake; ſo that the republican army formed one immenſe chain acroſs the whole of this part of Germany, of which the left extended almoſt to the frontiers of Bohemia, and the right to the Tyrolean mountains, ſeparating Bavaria from Italy.

Thus the republican armies ſpreading univerſal alarm, every German prince trembled for his poſſeſſions. Meantime the Duke of Wurtemburgh and the Prince of Baden, whoſe territories were in poſſeſſion of the troops of the republic, ſent their reſpective ambaſſadors to Paris to treat for peace with the directory. By theſe treaties the Duke of Wurtemburgh engaged himſelf to withdraw from every alliance, offenſive and defenſive, entered into by him againſt the French republic; to furniſh in no wiſe any aid or aſſiſtance, by loan, contingents, or ſtores, either individually or as a member of the Germanic empire, to any power at war with France; and to renounce, in favour of the French republic, whatever poſſeſſions he held on the Rhine. The treaty with the Prince of Baden was concluded on the ſame conditions, together with certain ſtipulations for the free navigation of the river, which had hitherto been ſubjected, from various arbitrary regulations, to heavy exactions.

Theſe treaties were followed by other diplomatic arrangements, of ſtill greater importance, with the cabinet of Madrid. The treaty of peace, concluded with that power on the 22d of July, 1795, was conſidered by ſome all-graſping politicians as too moderate, conſidering the triumphant condition of the republican armies

armies in that quarter; while thoſe who were more moderate applauded the terms as wiſe and ſalutary.

The coalition had long ſince been ſo disjointed and broken, that what remained, compared with its firſt formidable ſtate, ſcarcely deſerved the name. It was not, however, to have been expected that any of thoſe powers, juſt eſcaped from a ſtruggle in which they had been, in a manner, compelled to throw themſelves on the mercy of the enemy, would have readily again mingled in the conteſt in any ſhape; but the influence of the republic at this period, was as predominant in various cabinets in Europe, as its arms had been victorious againſt their reſpective forces; and Pruſſia and Spain did not ſatisfy themſelves by withdrawing their armies from their former allies, but entered into new and ſtrict alliances with the French republic.

While the Emperor of Germany was daily loſing ſome part of his poſſeſſions by the progreſs of the French arms, the King of Pruſſia was employed in taking advantage of his reverſes, by ſeizing on independent ſtates which had been hitherto ſecure under the imperial protection, and the laws of the empire. He claimed the ſuburbs of the city of Nuremberg, under an obſolete title of a very remote date, being upwards of 200 years; and troops were employed to enforce the demand. The ſucceſs of the French arms had haſtened the negociation carried on between the court of Berlin and the republic; and, as the humiliation of the houſe of Auſtria was a primary conſideration with this court, its friendſhip towards France kept pace with the victories gained over the imperial armies.

The conditions, however, of the new treaty with Pruſſia were kept ſecret, as the fulfilment of them depended on circumſtances. Spain openly declared her friendſhip for the French republic; and the conditions of an alliance, offenſive and defenſive, were arranged between the Duke of Alcudia and M. Perignon, ambaſſador of the French republic at the court of Spain, at St. Ildefonzo on the 19th of Auguſt, and was ratified in

in form by the French government. By this treaty the contracting powers engaged to guarantee to each other their reſpective poſſeſſions, with an expreſs ſtipulation that as England is the only power againſt which Spain has cauſe of complaint, the operations of the preſent alliance ſhould be ſolely confined to that power. Some material articles in the Pruſſian treaty began to tranſpire, among which was the guarantee of the republic to the Dutch by the Pruſſian government, to the perpetual excluſion of the Stadtholder.

But whatever might have been the projects of the King of Pruſſia while the French armies were advancing victoriouſly into Germany,—and theſe imputed to him were nothing leſs than the breaking up of the Germanic conſtitution, if he thereby could be elevated to its head,—the ſudden and unexpected reverſes of the French, who were now in the centre of Bavaria, and on the frontiers of Bohemia, compelled him to change his plan, or at leaſt to ſuſpend the execution of it. The reverſes we allude to, were the expulſion of one of thoſe armies from Germany, and the memorable and well-conducted retreat of the other, which form too intereſting a topic, not only in the hiſtory of the campaign, but alſo in that of the revolution, to be haſtily paſſed over without noticing the cauſes which produced theſe reverſes, when there was every appearance of the annihilation of the Auſtrian power, and the univerſal triumph of the French republic in that quarter, and of the principles on which it was founded.

We have no intention to detail the cauſes which occaſioned ſuch a change in the ſituation of affairs in the French armies; ſufficient is it to ſay, that the officers, aſſuming over the vanquiſhed that authority too often accompanying power, ſubjected the inhabitants to all the rigours of a conquered people, from the maſs of whom they exacted by far the greateſt part of the levies and contributions, which they did not expect from republican principles: but they ſaw, with indignation and reſentment, that the nobles and the prieſts, as under

der their former *regime*, paid but a ſmall proportion to the contributions. To the reſentment occaſioned by this improvident conduct of the commanders in chief, muſt be added private depredations and plunder of the inferior officers and ſoldiers, who, finding their ſuperiors tranſgreſſing with impunity, indulged the diſpoſition natural to military men, flushed with victory, unreſtrained by diſcipline, and meeting with no reſiſtance. Though love of plunder actuated numbers, it has been obſerved, in excuſe for the conduct of General Jourdan, that the requiſitions made by him to the directory for ſupplies of every kind, had been ſo entirely unheeded, that he was compelled to connive at theſe irregularities, in order to follow up the advantages which he was daily gaining over the enemy. To this the French directory was not forward in avowing a revolutionary ſpirit, as it might give umbrage to thoſe powers with whom they were now about to form ſtrict alliances. But, from whatever cauſe it proceeded, it is certain that the French alienated from them the minds of the inhabitants of thoſe countries which they conquered, who, inſtead of deliverers, conſidered them as the allies of their ancient governors, and even as aggravating the burdens under which they were already deſtined to bend.

We have already obſerved, that the army of the Sambre and the Meuſe had poſſeſſed themſelves of the country lying on each ſide the Mein; they had made themſelves maſters of Franconia and the ſtates adjacent, and were advancing, though with meaſured ſteps, as they met every where with obſtinate reſiſtance, towards Ratiſbon; while Moreau, who had marched along the Danube and taken poſſeſſion of Ulm, Donawerth, and other towns, ſituated on its banks, paſſed the Leck near Augſburg, where he was oppoſed with great vigour by the Auſtrians, whom he defeated, and triumphantly entered the circle of Bavaria. During this period the Auſtrian armies had received conſiderable reinforcements, whilſt thoſe of the French were neceſſarily

ſarily weakened from the immenſe tracts of country which they had conquered, and which they were compelled to guard. The Archduke Charles, who had been purſued by Moreau into Bavaria, having placed his army in advantageous poſitions along the Danube, and on the right of the river Ihm, which divides the dominions of the Elector of Bavaria from the hereditary poſſeſſions of the houſe of Auſtria, ſent off, in the mean time, conſiderable reinforcements to the army of Wartenſleben, which was already equal in number to the army under Jourdan, who was then in purſuit of the Auſtrians, and who had arrived within a day's march of Ratiſbon.

The right wing of the French army under General Bornadotte was, on the 22d of Auguſt, unexpectedly attacked by forces ſo ſuperior, that it was compelled, in order to avoid being ſurrounded, to fall back on the main body; and Jourdan finding himſelf in a country where he could expect no reſources, and expoſed to imminent danger by having General Wartenſleben in front and the Archduke Charles on his flank, ordered the whole of the army to retreat; which was effected, not without ſome difficulty and loſs, owing leſs to the courage of the Auſtrian ſoldiers, than to the vengeance of the peaſantry, and other inhabitants of the countries they had to repaſs, who took advantage of the diſtreſs of the French, to retaliate for the injuries they had received. Like uncultivated barbarians they expreſſed their reſentment in ſo ferocious a manner, that the French general found it impoſſible to rally his troops, who, loaded alſo with the fruits of their rapine, were more ſedulous to eſcape with their ſpoils, than to incur any further riſk of loſing their treaſure together with their lives. The Auſtrians alſo hung on the rear and the flanks of the French ſo cloſely, that no reſpite was allowed them, nor did Jourdan think his army in ſafety, till repaſſing Bamberg and Wurtzburg, he gained the banks of the lower Rhine, by nearer marches through Wetzlar,

Wetzlar, and halted only at the poſts from whence he had commenced his expedition.

By this retreat of the army of the Sambre and Meuſe, the ſituation of that of the Rhine and Moſelle, under General Moreau, was rendered extremely critical; as his left flank was uncovered, and the Auſtrian forces falling into his rear had the means of cutting off his communication with France. This event was the more likely to happen, ſince the army of the Sambre and Meuſe had been repulſed to a diſtance ſo remote as to be incapable of making any effective diverſion; and the garriſons of Mentz, Manheim and Philipſburg, which the French armies had left behind them, in the full confidence of being able to take them at leiſure, lay between that army and the army of the Rhine and Moſelle, now inſulated in the centre of Germany.

While the Auſtrians were perſuing the army of the Sambre and Meuſe towards the Rhine, General Moreau puſhed on his conqueſts to the banks of the Iſer, without much reſiſtance, as it did not enter into the plan of the Auſtrian generals to make much oppoſition to him in that quarter. He took, therefore quiet poſſeſſion of the capital of Bavaria, on the 27th of Auguſt, and made the uſual requiſitions of money and ſtores, including pictures, from the elector, and entered into preliminary treaties with him for a ſuſpenſion of arms preparatory to peace, which the elector engaged, by an article in the treaty of armiſtice, to negotiate with the directory at Paris. Moreau had conceived hopes, either that Jourdan's army would reſume the attack, or that his farther advances towards Vienna, would force the Archduke to return; but the defeat of Jourdan's army was ſo complete that all hopes of their further reſiſtance were relinquiſhed, and Moreau was compelled to concentrate his forces in order to guard againſt new dangers, for which he was not provided. General Moreau, in order to make a more effectual diverſion for Jourdan's army, had detached a conſiderable body

body of his main forces towards Nuremberg, in order to fall on the rear of the Archduke's army, and cut off his communications and ſupplies. The main army was to have been ſtationed at Neuburg, on the Danube, in order to prevent the advance of the imperialiſts whom he left on the banks of the Ihm. The Auſtrian general, however, aware of this movement, immediately ſent off a conſiderable diviſion acroſs the Danube, whilſt the forces which kept the paſſes of the Tyrol mountains, advanced to annoy the rear of the French army. The attempt made by the detachment which had marched towards Nuremberg, therefore, did not ſucceed, as the Archduke had given orders that the line of communication ſhould be kept up farther to the north, by the route of Egra and Bamberg. Moreau, therefore, convinced that no aſſiſtance was likely to be received from the army of the Sambre and Meuſe, but perceiving on the contrary, that the Archduke had detached a part of the forces under his command, together with portions of the garriſons of Manheim and Philipſburg, towards his own line of communication with the Rhine, found it indiſpenſibly neceſſary, for the ſafety of his army, to concentrate his forces, and effect a retreat. In conſequence of this reſolution he withdrew his troops, without loſs, from the electorate of Bavaria; and repaſſing the Leck, which divides this country from the circle of Suabia, ſtationed his army between the Danube, at the Ulm, and the lake of Conſtance. Preſſed on his flank and rear, Moreau, in order to extricate himſelf, found it neceſſary to give battle to General Latour, who was marching cloſe upon him. The event was ſucceſsful; he gained a complete victory, on the 3d of October, over the Auſtrian army, and made 5,000 priſoners. This victory, however, though highly important in the critical ſituation in which Moreau was placed, was not ſufficient to extricate the army from the dangers with which it was ſurrounded! ſince the Auſtrian general had cut off the communication with the Rhine, by ſeizing all the paſſages in the

the Black Foreſt through which Moreau had to retreat, and in gaining poſſeſſion of the Villes Foreſtieres, or frontier towns which lay on the Rhine, and which bounded the Swiſs territory.

By theſe poſitions being taken by the German troops, the army of the Rhine and Moſelle was entirely inſulated, ſo that the difficulty of its final retreat was now rendered extreme. Twenty-four thouſand Auſtrians, under the command of Generals Nauendorf and Petraſch, were ſtationed in its front, as it was now retreating; while General Latour, recovering from his defeat, and having received reinforcements, purſued it cloſely in its rear.

The paſſes by the Villes Foreſtières being but ſlenderly guarded, Moreau ſent off his ſick and wounded, and alſo his baggage, under a ſtrong eſcort, by that road; while, with the main body of his army, he kept in check the enemy, with whom he was continually in action till he arrived at the paſſes of the Black Foreſt. The part of this foreſt through which he judged it moſt expedient to effect his paſſage was that part called the Valley of Hell, through which for many leagues the mountains riſe ſo boldly, that ſcarce a ſpace is left between them for fifty men to march in front. This defile, formidable by nature, was defended by what was judged a ſufficient number of troops to cloſe it up; but the centre of the army ruſhing on forced the paſſage, while the right and left kept in check the Auſtrian forces on the flank and rear. By this deſperate meaſure, Moreau extricated himſelf from the imminent danger which threatened him, and brought his army with inconſiderable loſs to Fribourg; not only making good his retreat through a hoſtile country of 300 miles extent, but daily giving battle to the enemy, even while flushed with victory, making the aſſailants priſoners to the amount of ſeveral thouſands, and taking from them both colours and cannon. The Archduke Charles having united further detachments from his army to thoſe already oppoſed to Moreau, this General

was at length compelled to abandon the Briſgaw, and ſend back his army acroſs the Rhine, which he effected at Briſach and Huningue, retaining, however, the batteries which had been erected on the banks oppoſite to this laſt fortreſs, and alſo leaving a ſtrong garriſon in the fortreſs of Kehl, from whence he had commenced his irruption into Germany.

Thus ended the expedition into the imperial territory; and although the repulſe of the French overthrew the gigantic plans of conqueſt, which, in the delirium of ſucceſs, the French nation began to form, the invaſion was yet productive of eſſential ſervice to the republic, by detaching almoſt the whole of the German Princes from the coalition; whilſt in the preſent ſtate of their exhauſted finances, the army ſubſiſting at the expence of the enemy, during ſo conſiderable a part of the campaign, was an object of no inconſiderable importance.

The conſideration, however, which outweighed every other, was the powerful diverſion which this invaſion into Germany operated in favour of the conqueſt of Italy. As the Milaneſe was the principal object of conqueſt, all the operations in Germany, however dangerous or romantic, effected this important purpoſe, and facilitated the progreſs and glorious enterpriſe of Bonaparte.

The retreat of General Moreau is conſidered by all military men as, perhaps, the moſt maſterly ever achieved either in ancient or modern times. The retreat of Zenophon, at the head of 10,000 Greeks, has juſtly been the theme of admiration in every age; but we are to conſider that that conſummate General and philoſopher commanded an army of warriors, each of whom was qualified to lead an army; while the oppoſing enemies were vaſt multitudes of ſoft, cowardly, and effeminate Aſiatics; but Moreau had to withſtand troops, the flower of Germany, ſtrangers to fear, and led by the moſt accompliſhed officers of Europe.

It

It is true, the previous retreat of the armies under Prince Charles has claim to merit the regard of poſterity. Leaving a great maſs of troops behind him in perfect ſecurity, he divided and diſperſed that of the enemy by drawing them on, without loſs or inconvenience to himſelf. He acquired ſtrength by his approach to the frontier of the hereditary ſtates, in proportion as the French loſt it by their diſtance from their own; till at length ſeizing the favourable moment, and concentrating his renovated forces, he turned on the invader, thus previouſly weakened, whom a rapid and well-conducted flight thus ſaved from deſtruction; and returning to the ſtrong poſts he had left on the Rhine, he drove the French armies from their former conqueſts in the Palatinate, and forced them to ſeek refuge within the fortreſſes of their ancient territory.

In conſequence of this reverſe of affairs in the French military operations, the artful and political Pruſſian monarch found it expedient to moderate his pretenſions with reſpect to the territory of which he had lately taken poſſeſſion. He, accordingly, withdrew his troops and his claims from the cities of Nuremberg, Wendſheim, and Weiſemberg, declaring that he could not accept the re-union of theſe ſtates to the Pruſſian crown, without the free conſent of the inhabitants, and the permiſſion of the empire, neither of which he was likely to obtain.

The ſpeedy apparent change of ſentiments expreſſed by the King of Pruſſia, and his adoption of ſounder principles of political rectitude, may eaſily be attributed to the ſucceſſes of the Auſtrian armies; though it is ſaid, alſo, that he was partly influenced by remonſtrances from the court of Peterſburgh, which was to him a conſtant object of dread and apprehenſion.

General Wurmſer's army had been conſiderably weakened by his defeat before Mantua; yet the reinforcements which he received by the Tyrol, kept him in a reſpectable ſtate of reſiſtance againſt the paſſage of the French armies, by theſe mountains into Germany.

Bonaparte,

Bonaparte, leaving a ſufficient number of forces to keep up the blockade of Mantua, marched along the Adige to attack the Auſtrian army which was ſtrongly entrenched at Mori, and which occupied the paſſes of St. Marco. After a ſevere conteſt, theſe paſſes were taken by the French, and the Auſtrians were compelled to evacuate the city of Roveredo, which had long been their chief *depot*, and take refuge in Trent. In order to cover this important city, the Auſtrians had rallied at the paſs of Calliano, and had taken poſitions which appeared impregnable. The addreſs and courage of the diviſion under General Maſſena, ſurmounted this obſtacle; and after a long and obſtinate conflict, in which the French made 6,000 priſoners, and took twenty pieces of cannon, Maſſena victorioufly entered the city of Trent, while General Wurmſer, drawing on the remainder of his forces to the right, towards Baſſano, aſſembled the greater part of them in the valley of Brenta.

By this manœuvre, the Auſtrian commander hoped to have engaged Bonaparte to have continued his march into the Tyrol, which appeared to be his object, and to which there was no longer any oppoſition; while, by rapid marches, he was enabled, from the poſition he had taken, to fall into the rear of the French army, and by cutting it off from the diviſion left to form the blockade of Mantua, had hoped, with the aſſiſtance of the garriſon, to defeat this diviſion, and ſo prevent the retreat of the French general. Bonaparte, however, inſtead of continuing his march from Trent in the Tyrol, aware of the deſign of Wurmſer, turned ſhort to the right, and followed him cloſely to the valley of Brenta. Purſuing his march along the river of this name, he defeated the Auſtrians (September 8th) ſucceſſively, at Primonalo, at Covolo, at Ceſmone, and laſt at Baſſano, where Wurmſer had eſtabliſhed his head-quarters. Perceiving himſelf then vigorouſly purſued, Wurmſer had no alternative but to retreat towards Trieſte, by which he muſt have abandoned

Mantua

Mantua to its fate, or make good his march to that place, and reinforce the garriſon with the wrecks of his army. The latter plan ſeemed to him the moſt practicable; he accordingly preſented himſelf before Verona, where he attempted to paſs the Adige; but General Kilmaine, whom Bonaparte had left in that city, oppoſed his progreſs; and he was on that account compelled to ſeek a paſſage at Porto Legano, which he fortunately effected. It was Bonaparte's intention to have prevented him from penetrating to Mantua, and he had taken meaſures to ſurround him, and compel him to ſurrender; but Wurmſer's marches were ſo rapid, that this plan could not be put into execution. He met with reſiſtance in his march at Cerea, Caſtellano, and Duc Caſtelli; but as he had to contend with inferior forces, he ſucceeded in making his way to Mantua, where the French attacking, and obtaining, after great ſlaughter, the poſts of Favorito and St. George, in the ſuburbs of the city, and not having artillery to form a ſiege, turned the whole into a blockade. In this attack it was computed that the imperialiſts loſt 20,000 men; and this was the third army that had been deſtroyed, in the courſe of the campaign, in attempting to reduce Lombardy once more under the Auſtrian yoke.

Freſh ſcenes of political diſcord and diſorder, which threatened the ſubverſion of government and the renewal of the reign of terror, on the 19th of July, preſented themſelves at Marſeilles.

For this deſtructive purpoſe, the Jacobins fixed on the period when the citizens aſſembled for the annual choice of their magiſtrates. Marſeilles at once reſembled a city taken by ſtorm, and delivered over to the pillage of a ferocious ſoldiery. Bands of aſſaſſins ran through the ſtreets, with their necks and arms bare, armed with ſabres, ſtillettos, and clubs, exclaiming, "Long live the mountain!"—"Long live the conſtitution of 1793!" and having divided themſelves into different bands, they took poſſeſſion of the halls where the

the ſections aſſembled, overthrew the urns which contained the ballots of the citizens, drove the preſidents and ſecretaries of the aſſemblies from their places, and murdered thoſe who made reſiſtance. The commiſſary of the directory of Marſeilles excuſed thoſe outrages to the government as private quarrels between the royaliſts and republicans: but the council of five hundred inſtituted an enquiry into the facts, and expoſed the perfidy of the agent of government, and having annulled the elections, ordered the directory to fill up the vacancies proviſionally, until proper meaſures ſhould be taken for the ſecurity and tranquillity of the city.

But although the Jacobins were moſt frequently guilty of theſe exceſſes; yet the public tranquillity was often diſturbed by the partizans of royalty, and by fanatics, who under the title of Societies of the Sun and of Jeſus, retaliated with great ſeverity, and often with cruelty, on the agents of terroriſm, by whom, in the days of revolutionary government, they had been ſeverely perſecuted.

Inſurrections, however, had been moſtly confined to the ſouth of France, where the paſſions, perhaps, acquire energy from the influence of the climate: yet theſe were generally quelled by military force. The Jacobins at this period being defeated at Marſeilles, ſoon after another attempt for the ſubverſion of the government at Paris itſelf, more violent and extravagant than even that of Babeuf, was luckily detected.

Drouet, who had a principal ſhare in the conſpiracy, had been arreſted; but it was thought, that by the connivance of the Jacobin party in the government, had eſcaped from the Abbey priſon where he had been confined. And, although the evaſion of Drouet rendered the aſſembly of a national court unneceſſary, it was, however, determined that the trial of his accomplices ſhould be carried on in the ſame forms as if he was preſent. This conſpiracy, which, for its extent and

and its views, may rank with any recorded in hiſtory, became juſtly an object of national attention. The examination of the papers of the conſpirators, which formed a collection, as curious as it was terrible, preſented ſuch details and ramifications of treaſon, as deterred the government from making them immediately public; and it was ſome time before the depth of this conſpiracy was diſcovered.

Upon the publication of theſe papers, the nation called aloud for the trial of the conſpirators. When Babeuf with the other conſpirators was transferred to the city of Vendome, where the high national court was appointed to aſſemble, the ſubaltern agents of the conſpiracy attempted a freſh inſurrection in order to favour the eſcape of their leaders. It was ſoon diſcovered, the agents having been detected in the very fact. The Jacobins having failed in this plan, were not diſcouraged from undertaking another of a ſtill bolder and more deſperate nature. A number of deſperadoes conſiſting of ſix hundred perſons, aſſembled at the village of Vaugirard, and they entered the camp which contained troops ſtationed there to preſerve the public tranquillity at midnight, crying "Long live the conſtitution of 1793!—Down with the councils; Down with the five tyrants! (the directory) Having entered the camp they invited the ſoldiers to fraternity, to get rid of their chiefs, and march under their banners to glory and empire. As this was an undiſguiſed act of rebellion, the ſoldiers did not defer the puniſhment. The moſt forward of the inſurgents were immediately put to the ſword, or ſhot: and the remainder fled in all directions. The greater part made their eſcape: one hundred and thirty two were taken priſoners, and were afterwards tried by a military commiſſion; of theſe the greater part were releaſed; the reſt having been formerly members of revolutionary committees were condemned to baniſhment or death.

The project of theſe deſperate and infatuated men, was to put to death the majority of the directory, and the

the greater part of the two councils, the ſtaff of Paris, and all the miniſters, except Merlin, the miniſter of juſtice, whom, from his lenity, they ſuppoſed to be their friend.

At the head of this conſpiracy, were three ex-repreſentatives of the people, and three ex-generals, who were all executed. This deſperate attempt had the ſalutary effect of awakening the executive power to greater vigilance againſt the remains of Jacobiniſm in France.

This inſurrection took place at the moment when the legiſlature was employed in forming a law of general amneſty for revolutionary crimes committed from the 10th of July 1789 to the 4th of February 1798. The reſtleſs ſpirit of the Jacobins, however, prevented this humane law from being enacted.

At this time, the republic of Geneva, relying on the friendſhip of the French republic, to the fortunes of which it had ſhewn the moſt conſtant attachment, enjoined M. Reybaz, its miniſter, to requeſt from the directory, that the ſame protection which it gave to the Dutch republic, in making the acknowledgement of its independence a part of the conditions with thoſe powers with whom it concluded treaties of peace, might be extended to that of Geneva; ſince ſuch acknowledgement was neceſſary, particularly with reſpect to their neighbour, the King of Sardinia, and might prove ſerviceable to them with the Princes of the German empire.

This was a requeſt which might have been granted by France without any inconvenience to themſelves, and would have been admitted by the reſpective powers without difficulty. The French government, however, (always politic amidſt all their internal convulſions) had other views; and the miniſter of foreign affairs hinted to M. Reybaz, that it was probable the republic of Geneva might find it more adviſable, and more accordant to its future tranquillity and intereſt, to renounce its independency, and become an integral part of the French republic. M. Reybaz, who had no inſtructions

ſtructions from his government to liſten to overtures of ſuch magnitude, could give no ſatisfactory reply to the miniſter on this ſubject; who, on that account, obtained an order from the directory to requeſt from the republic of Geneva, the recal of their ambaſſador, and the ſending of another, who ſhould be poſſeſſed of purer principles of patriotiſm, and with whom he ſhould not find the ſame difficulties that he had found with M. Reybaz. The Geneva government, without taking any apparent notice of the inſinuation, ſent another ambaſſador: but as both the repugnance of that government to the deſired union, and the character of the new envoy, were previouſly known to the miniſter, the ambaſſador was not admitted; and the government of Geneva ſoon after experienced another ſhock from the diſorder and violences of the Jacobin party, in the murder of two individuals, who had been tried for ſome political offence, which was apparently meant as an indication to the inhabitants, that a re-union with France was the only effectual mode of inſuring order and tranquillity.

A general indignation was excited in France, by this miſerable and Machiavelian policy. Beſides the exceſſes committed againſt the rights of an independent nation, and the infraction of all thoſe principles on which the French republic had founded its own exiſtence, the attempt was impolitic, as the danger of the precedent would alarm the cantons of Switzerland, for their own independency; and the benefit reſulting to France could in no way counterbalance the numerous evils which would reſult from this union with Geneva.

The propoſed union was, however, dropt for the preſent; but the diſpoſition in the French government to accompliſh this object, was not immediately changed: for, the diſmiſſal of Mr. Reybaz and his ſucceſſor, was followed by the rejection of a third and fourth ambaſſador, attended with circumſtances of indignity, as theſe perſons were not ſuffered to reſide in Paris. The

Geneva government fully ſenſible of theſe repeated inſults, without taking any public notice of them, which, indeed, they had not power to reſent, continued their labours in forming a conſtitution, as a free and ſovereign ſtate; and took meaſures to repreſs that ſeditious and anarchical ſpirit which the Jacobinical party in the French government was ſhrewedly ſuſpected to have fomented and encouraged. We ſhall ſee more of this afterwards. We now go on to obſerve, that although every power in Europe had felt in a greater or leſs degree, the force of the French arms or the no leſs dangerous diplomatic influence which they every where employed, England had hitherto, except in the accumulation of debt and the derangement of her finances, ſuffered by the war leſs than any other ſtate. Various had been the plans of annoyance againſt that country projected by the French; but all had hitherto been delayed, or ſet aſide as inadequate or impracticable; till it was ſuggeſted, that the moſt effectual mode of oppoſing England with effect, was to exclude her manufactures from every port in Europe. The proclamation iſſued by the Engliſh miniſter, permitting the exportation of goods to the Netherlands and the United Provinces, led the Dutch convention to iſſue a counter proclamation, forbidding, under ſevere penalties, the entry of ſuch goods into the Dutch republic, and calling on their countrymen, by every principle of honour, as well as eventual intereſt, to abſtain from this commerce. They obſerved, in their report, that the precarious benefit offered them was the fruit of perfidy and rapine which the Engliſh government had exerciſed towards them; that this laſt inſult ought to be repelled with indignation, as compliance with it would only be favouring the deſigns of the enemy, ſince the only motive the Engliſh government could have for this act of apparently relaxed hoſtility, was that of ſeeking to exhauſt Holland of its ready money to ſatisfy its own neceſſities, and thereby facilitate the means of continuing the war.

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The Dutch republic propoſed this mode of annoying England to the French directory. It created ſpirited debates; but as all parties concurred in the principle of the decree, which was that of injuring in the moſt eſſential manner the commerce and diminiſhing the revenues of England, it paſſed by a conſiderable majority.

This new ſyſtem of hoſtilities was carried into execution throughout the greater part of Europe. The Britiſh manufactures found no entrance into any port from the Elbe to the Adriatic, ſave thoſe of Portugal. Spain, by the declaration of war, had entered partly into the plan; and, on the ſuggeſtions of the French, was prepared to follow their ſteps. Genoa, after repeated ſtruggles to keep her neutrality reſpected, placed unfortunately between three great powers, thoſe of England, Auſtria, and France, and her territory violated ſucceſſively by each, was compelled to yield to the urgent remonſtrances of the French republic, and by a formal treaty, agreed to ſhut up her ports againſt the Engliſh. Leghorn was in poſſeſſion of the republican troops, as formerly related; and the Engliſh found themſelves confined in the Mediterranean to the poſſeſſion of the iſland of Elbe, before Leghorn, to which they retreated when expelled from that city. Their Italian allies, the Pope, and the King of Naples, were by the conditions of the armiſtice with the French republic, circumſcribed in their means of affording aſſiſtance. Corſica was alſo at this period evacuated by the Engliſh, who, having taken poſſeſſion of it at a time when the tyranny of the Jacobins had ſubjected France, had found the leſs reſiſtance in re-eſtabliſhing the forms of monarchical government. While Spain and Italy remained faithful to the coalition, and the French were menaced in their ports by the fleets of theſe combined powers, Corſica ſubmitted to the Britiſh crown, having no alternative at that convulſed period. But when theſe powers were either neutralized by the ſucceſs of the French armies in Italy, or become hoſtile to their

their former allies by forming new combinations with the French, whom they had joined to extirpate,—the Corſicans, whoſe love of independence had already been the theme of poets and hiſtorians, once more felt their breaſts warmed with the generous and ſacred flame.

For ſome time the deliverance of Corſica had been in contemplation; nor could the vigilance of the viceroy hinder ſuch communications, or his authority ſuppreſs ſuch tendencies to inſurrection, as were ſufficient to mark the diſpoſitions of his newly acquired ſubjects. While the French were forming plans, the execution of which was fruſtrated by the ſuperiority of the Engliſh naval force, the Corſicans were employed in finding means how to co-operate with their former countrymen, and ſhake off their new allegiance. The viceroy, who knew how to eſtimate the alternately ſubtle and ſtubborn politics of theſe iſlanders, did not wait the exploſion, but gave notice that he was going to withdraw his troops; and, along with them, the kingly government he had come to eſtabliſh. The Corſicans ſcarcely waited the withdrawing of the Engliſh troops, before they formed themſelves into primary aſſemblies, to ſend deputies to the commiſſioners in Italy to diveſt themſelves of their title of ſubjects to the King of England, "and ſwear allegiance to liberty," as citizens of the French republic.

The negociation which had been carried on during the ſummer between the French republic and Naples, and which had been purſued or interrupted by the latter power according to the victories or diſadvantages of the republican troops in Italy, was, on the 25th of October, brought to a termination by a definitive treaty of peace. France, by this treaty, had one enemy leſs to contend with; and the ſecret articles gratified both the people of France and the Neapolitan government.

The treaty with the Duke of Parma, which had likewiſe been negociated through the mediation of Spain, was ſoon after ratified in the uſual form.

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The negociation, however, with the papal power was not on their part equally ſucceſsful. M. Pierracchi, who had been ſent plenipotentiary from the Holy See to the French republic, found the conditions propoſed by the directory ſo irreconcileable with the maxims of the catholic church, that he refuſed to come to any concluſion. It was, however, agreed that the negociation ſhould be continued in Italy, nearer to the reſidence of the Pope, that his holineſs might himſelf determine what were the conditions to which he choſe to give his aſſent, and what were the ſacrifices of religious opinion he ſhould think it expedient to make. A congreſs was therefore appointed to be held at Florence, conſiſting of the French commiſſioners belonging to the army of Italy, on the part of the republic, and of Count Galeppi on that of the Holy See. The congreſs, however, was of ſhort duration; for the commiſſioners produced a long liſt of articles, and inſiſted, as an indiſpenſible preliminary, that they ſhould be accepted or refuſed altogether.

The papal negociator not being prepared to decide ſo haſtily on ſo important a ſubject, carried the articles back with him to Rome. By theſe articles the Pope was enjoined to ſeparate himſelf from the coalition, and from every alliance, offenſive and defenſive, againſt France; to acknowledge in the moſt poſitive terms, that his confidence had been abuſed, and himſelf deceived by the common enemies of the papal ſee and the French republic, who had made uſe of his name to publiſh various edicts and declarations, the ſpirit and effect of which were as contrary to his true intentions, as they were hoſtile to the rights of nations: that he therefore revoked and annulled all ſuch publications of whatever kind, which ſhould have been inveſted with his ſpiritual authority, and which ſhould have any reference to the affairs of France, ſince the period of the French revolution.

To theſe retractations, mortifying in the extreme to the holy father, he was enjoined to diſavow any concern

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in the murder of the French ambaſſador, Baſſeville; to ſet at liberty all perſons, whether French, or the natives of other countries, or his own ſubjects, who were held in confinement on account of their political opinions; to deprive no man in future of his liberty, or perſecute him on account of his religious ſentiments; to prohibit the inhuman cuſtom of mutilating children through his ſtates, under the moſt ſevere penalties; and utterly to aboliſh the tribunal of the inquiſition. It was alſo required that the Pope ſhould make his ſtates the aſylum of the members of the monaſtic orders, and of the prieſts, who had quitted France, and that he ſhould renounce all right to the territories which he formerly poſſeſſed in France, and which now were integral parts of the French republic.

To theſe conditions, others were annexed of a more private nature, under the deſignation of ſecret articles, by which the Pope ſhould bind himſelf to the payment of 300,000 livres each month, till the ratification of the peace with the King of Naples and the Emperor; and by which he engaged to cede to the French republic various duchies, and leave them in poſſeſſion of the legations of Ferrara Bologna and its dependencies. Other conditions, under the title of "treaty of commerce and navigation," and articles relative to conſuls, made up this ſeries of propoſitions, to which the Pope was required to give his prompt and unequivocal, undecided aſſent.

His holineſs held a congregation of cardinals, who unanimouſly decreed, that the conditions were not only incompatible with the tenets of the catholic religion, but alſo ſubverſive of the rights of ſovereignty, and of courſe refuſed their aſſent.

M. Galeppi returned to Florence, to make known to the French commiſſioners the determination of the Pope, which he did in a note ſigned by himſelf and M. Azzara, the Spaniſh miniſter at the court of Rome, and who acted as umpire between the republic and the Holy See. The commiſſioners, on the other hand, refuſed

fuſed to accept this note, alledging that they had no concern with M. Azzara, on which M. Galleppi diſpatched another note, in which he claimed the mediation of the court of Spain, adding, that though they refuſed to acknowledge that mediation, the Pope's refuſal to the articles propoſed was, nevertheleſs, to be underſtood as given. The time of the armiſtice, which was granted to the Pope, had now expired; and as there was no proſpect of peace with the French republic, his holineſs refuſed to comply with the terms to which he had aſſented when the armiſtice was concluded, and the integrality of Roman wealth, and the ornaments of the capital of Italy, were for ſome time longer preſerved.

The Italians, in the mean time, ſouth of the Po, who had been conquered by the French, took meaſures for the formation of a new government, under the protection of the French republic. The cities of Bologna, Ferrara, Reggio, and Modena, were leagued in this confederation; the Duke of Modena having been held to have abdicated his government, both by his having abandoned the city, and alſo not having fulfilled the conditions of the treaty with the French general reſpecting the armiſtice. To effect this plan, the ſenate of Bologna iſſued a proclamation for the holding of a congreſs at Modena, which ſhould conſiſt of 100 deputies, to be choſen by the reſpective confederated towns, according to their population. Thoſe deputies met at Modena, on the 16th of October, and having formed themſelves into a convention, decreed, that there ſhould be a ſincere and indiſſoluble union between the ſtates of Bologna, &c. They alſo decreed, that, independent of the national guard, a legion ſhould be formed, of which a fifth part was to be compoſed of foreigners, to ſuperintend the execution of the plan. The federation having previouſly taken the name of the Ciſalpine republic, from its ſituation on the ſide of the Po next to Rome, ſent, with the permiſſion of the French general and commiſſioners, a deputation to Milan, called by them

them the capital of the Tranſalpine republic, from its being ſituated on the oppoſite ſide of that river, in order to eſtabliſh, between the two neighbouring powers, the bonds of union and fraternity.

In the mean time, each city proceeded to the formation of its reſpective government, and in each nearly the ſame regulations were adopted. Among other reforms, the privileges, and even the name of noble, was aboliſhed, and the various enſigns and blazonry of the order were no longer ſuffered to appear. What is remarkable, theſe diſtinctions and privileges were given up without murmur or reluctance, as objects of trivial concern; but what met with oppoſition on the part of the higher claſs of citizens, was the too great concentration of authority which the congreſs of Reggio were likely to poſſeſs, and which would tend greatly to diminiſh that which at preſent they enjoyed. Theſe objections, founded rather on the love of diſtinction ariſing from power, than from any view of public intereſt, were over-ruled; and the congreſs adjourned to the 27th of December the important queſtion then to be diſcuſſed, whether the Ciſalpine republics ſhould be federate, or whether they ſhould be united under the ſame general government. Thus liberty began to erect her head in the ancient ſeat of empire, to which ſhe had been a ſtranger for many centuries.

Notwithſtanding the vaſt ſuperiority of the Engliſh naval forces in almoſt every part of the globe, the French found means to elude their vigilance, and ſucceeded in an expedition to Newfoundland, where they burnt, and otherwiſe deſtroyed, Britiſh property to a large amount. This expedition was commanded by Admiral Richery, who, with a ſquadron of ſeven ſhips of the line, was releaſed, by the aid of the Spaniſh fleet from Cadiz, where he had been ſhut up for ſeveral months with the valuable captures he had made of the Britiſh Mediterranean fleet of merchantmen, in the preceding ſummer. The French, however, obtained no other advantage by this expedition, than the temporary

rary loſs they occaſioned to their enemies, with the ſafe return of Richery to Rochelle, and the addition to the naval armament then equipping at Breſt. This loſs on the part of the Engliſh was amply compenſated ſoon after by the advantages gained over the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, where Admiral Lucas, with his ſquadron, conſiſting of ſeven ſhips, was captured, or rather betrayed into the power of the Engliſh, by the defection of the crews under his command.

This ſquadron had eſcaped the vigilance of the Engliſh by effecting a paſſage early in the ſpring, and was to have been joined by a French ſquadron of ſufficient force to effect the purpoſe for which the expedition was deſtined,—the re-capture of the Cape. The French ſquadron was to have been fitted out at the expence of the Dutch, who could obtain this aid on no other conditions; the money was duly paid to the French government; but the ſquadron was never equipped; and the Dutch, after ſeveral months of fruitleſs ſolicitations, inſtead of recovering their poſſeſſions, were compelled to ſubmit to the loſs of the forces which they had ſent to retake them.

While the imperialiſt in the Upper Rhine were purſuing Moreau, who, in the face of a powerful enemy, had effected his paſſage acroſs the river at Huningue, preſerving a poſt on the right ſide which had been haſtily thrown up, from which the Auſtrians attempted in vain to diſlodge him; the army which had defeated the troops under General Jourdan, over-ran the Palatinate, advancing almoſt to the banks of the Moſelle on the one ſide, and ſpreading along the frontier of the French territory on the other. General Bournonville had been ordered from Holland to replace Jourdan, and reinforce the army of the Sambre and Meuſe with the diviſions under his command. Beſides the poſt oppoſite Huningue and the village of Kehl, the French kept poſſeſſion, on the right ſide of the Rhine, of the town of Nieuwied, a few miles below the fortreſs of Ehrenbreitſtein. Heavy falls of rain had ſwoln the Rhine,

by which the bridge was carried away; and ſo interrupted the communication.

The Auſtrians taking advantage of this circumſtance, and in order to cut off the communication with the main army of the French, croſſed the river in ſeveral places at once to divert the attention of the republicans from the attack which they meditated on Nieuwied from the iſland, one ſide of which ſtill communicated with the fort, as the bridge was unbroken in that part, and from the main land where their regular batteries were already eſtabliſhed.

This expedition had for its object the capture of the whole garriſon: but the French general, aware of the deſign of the Auſtrians, made his diſpoſitions to receive them at the true point of attack, and, after an obſtinate conflict, repelled them with conſiderable loſs. A few days after, the right wing of the army made a general movement, and, after defeating various diviſions of the imperial army, gained poſſeſſion of ſeveral poſts in the Palatinate, of great importance.

The late and unexpected ſucceſſes obtained by the imperialiſts over the republican armies in Germany, induced the emperor to aſſemble a fourth army to effect the releaſe of General Wurmſer, who was now ſhut up with his troops in Mantua. General Alvinzi, had encamped on the Piava, and was advancing towards Vicenza, while Davidovich, with the diviſion under his command, deſcended from the Tyrol, along the Adige, towards Verona, which was the head quarters of the French army. Alvinza, having paſſed the Piava, met the French on the Brenta, where an action took place which obliged him to repaſs the river; but the left of the French army under General Vaubois which was oppoſed to the Auſtrian diviſions in the Tyrol, being defeated, Bonaparte was compelled to retreat to Verona, and defend the paſſages of the Adige. The Auſtrian generals having now made themſelves maſters of all the country beyond this river, were concentrating their

their forces to attempt the attack of the French at Verona, and, by forcing the posts between the Adige and the Guarda, to raise the blockade of Mantua. Bonaparte saw the danger of awaiting the attack of the Austrians, who, if they succeeded either in taking Verona, or in forcing the posts on the lake of Guarda, would probably obtain their object, and so deprive him of the fruits of all his former victories. He, therefore, with equal military skill and courage, resolved to prevent the junction of the two Austrian armies, by an attack on General Alvinzi; for which purpose, he led the divisions under the Generals Angerau and Massena, along the Adige, which he passed in the night of the 4th of November, by means of a bridge of boats, at the village of Ronco, hoping to reach Villa Nuova in the morning, and attack the Austrians (whose head quarters were at Caldero) on their flanks and in their rear, and seize on their artillery and baggage. Alvinzi, however, who had received intimations of the motions of the French, strengthened his positions, by throwing Croation and Hungarian regiments into the village of Arcole, through which the French must necessarily pass in order to execute their projected plan. This village, which was strongly situated between morasses and canals, held the republican army in check during the whole day. In vain were the French troops rallied by their commanders, and led again to the charge. Four Generals, who threw themselves on the bridge leading to the village, were successively disabled by wounds more or less dangerous. Angereau seizing a standard, ran and planted it at the end of the bridge; and Bonaparte after calling to the soldiers to remember the bridge of Lodi, inspired a momentary emotion which induced him to attempt another assault, in which he lost two more of his Generals, and was himself in danger of perishing. Having early perceived the extreme difficulty of taking this post in front, he had sent round a division, by a march of several miles, to attack the village in the rear. The General who was sent on this expe-

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expedition, reached it at night and took poſſeſſion of it, with the ſmall garriſon which the Auſtrians had left to defend it, as they had withdrawn their troops to prepare for a general attack, and had removed the artillery and baggage, which was a primary object of Bonaparte's expedition. The action began at day-break, on the 6th of November, through the whole line. The diviſion of the French army on the right drove back the Auſtrian left wing and purſued it to the head-quarters at Caldero. The centre of the Auſtrians, after a long and obſtinate conflict, was compelled to retreat before the centre of the French; but the attack made on their left, which Bonaparte endeavoured to turn, was ineffectual, as it was flanked by a moraſs and ditches.

During the night Bonaparte threw bridges acroſs; and the next day, the 7th of November, the two armies renewed the combat. The Auſtrians attacked the centre of the French army with great vigour, and drove it back with conſiderable loſs, and were on the point of turning the right wing, when a body of troops which Bonaparte had drawn off from the left, and placed in ambuſcade, fell on the flank and rear of the Auſtrians, and made a dreadful ſlaughter. The left of the Auſtrian army ſtill held its ground, being formidable both in numbers, and alſo from its poſition. Bonaparte finding it impoſſible to attack or diſlodge it by force, had recourſe to a ſtratagem, which ſucceeded. He ſent out a ſmall party of horſe to make the circuit of the moraſs, and fall on the Auſtrians, ſounding, at the ſame time, a number of trumpets to deceive the enemy as to their numbers. The arrival of a large body of French troops, which had alſo been early ſent by a longer circuit to fall on their rear, threw them into complete diſorder. The Auſtrians fled on all ſides, and night only ended the purſuit.

General Davidovich was more ſucceſsful, having attacked, and again defeated General Vaubois, who commanded the paſs between the Adige and the lake of Guarda. Bonaparte

baparte therefore, leaving his cavalry in purſuit of Alvinzi's army, haſtened with reinforcements to Vaubois; and keeping in check the Auſtrians, who were advanced within a ſhort diſtance of Mantua, he ſucceeded, after a conteſt of ſeveral days, in driving them back with conſiderable loſs into the mountains of the Tyrol.

Amidſt theſe ſplendid ſucceſſes, the French had to regret with deep concern the effects of the battle of Arcoli, which was peculiarly fatal to their generals, by whoſe diſtinguiſhed efforts of bravery, victory was taken out of the hands of fortune. Bonaparte, eſcaping himſelf with difficulty, loſt both his aids-du-camp, who were killed by his ſide. The loſs of the Auſtrians in this battle was ſo conſiderable, that Alvinzi was compelled to retire behind the Brenta with the remainder of his forces, to await the arrival of another army, and leave Mantua once more to its fate.

The fate of Mantua was ſuppoſed to depend on the iſſue of this battle; but it appears that General Wurmſer had taken ſufficient advantage of the relief he had laſt received, to proviſion his garriſon, and enable him to defend the town far beyond the calculation of the French general, who, in his official letters, ſpoke with ſome confidence of its immediate ſurrender. When Bonaparte entered Lombardy, Mantua, which had been the only object of conteſt for eight months, and on which the fate of Italy depended, was altogether deſtitute of the means of ſuſtaining an attack,—having a feeble garriſon unprovided with ſtores or proviſions,—and would probably, after the battle of Lodi, have ſurrendered at the firſt ſummons. Had the French general, inſtead of marching to Milan, which was at all times acceſſible, and making a kind of promenade into the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, which he might have done at his leiſure, ſeized on this important poſt, he might have made himſelf maſter of Italy, and finiſhed an early campaign. Such are the obſervations of military men; yet ſurely ſome deference is due to the French commander in chief, the greateſt ſoldier in Europe, and whoſe all was at ſtake.

ſtake. To this it may be added, that before this important place, four imperial, well-appointed armies, were diſſipated, taken priſoners, or ſcattered in all directions; and all this effected by the addreſs and courage of Bonaparte in the ſpace of a few months,—that theſe armies being reinforced from thoſe on the Rhine, from which large detachments were made, the latter were ſo weakened, that the French were enabled to levy contributions in the heart of Germany; and though the invaders were eventually repulſed, they ſucceeded in diſſolving the confederacy of the German Princes, and in diminiſhing the number of the enemies of the French republic.

The miſunderſtanding which had for a long time ſubſiſted between the French republic and the United States of America, diſcovered itſelf at this period, more openly by the refuſal of the directory to receive Mr. Pinkeny as reſident plenipotentiary. They then decreed to imitate the conduct of the Engliſh who made all neutral ſhips prizes, when trading in the ports of France; and as Mr. Jay's remonſtrance had no effect in terminating this unwarrantable proceeding, they propoſed purſuing the ſame mode of hoſtility againſt all neutral ſhips trading to the American ports. The convention however in 1794 had revoked this decree, hoping that this conduct would lead the United States to uſe every effort to induce the Engliſh to adopt the ſame meaſure, by the agency of a new American envoy at the Britiſh court. Both applications were ineffectual.

Farther reclamations were made on the part of the French ambaſſador to the American government, 1794, which were unheeded; a memorial was preſented on the ſame ſubject, which was equally unnoticed. It appeared from theſe papers that not only neutral veſſels were ſeized, but ſailors were taken out of American veſſels to ſerve on board Britiſh ſhips, without any mark of diſapprobation manifeſted on the part of the American government. Under theſe circumſtances, the

the government of France was compelled to have recourſe to the ſame meaſures reſpecting neutral veſſels, as the Engliſh government had adopted, and was permitted by the neutral powers to continue, without remonſtrances or reclamations on their part.

The French government felt ſore at this contemptuous neglect, and inſulting conduct of the American government, now imagining themſelves ſecure under the triumphant flag of the bittereſt and moſt implacable enemy of the French republic. And whatever ſpecific cauſes of complaint the French government might have againſt that of the United States, on account of the treaty lately concluded with England, the diſpoſitions which led to the formation of that treaty, would alone have been ſufficient to have explained the reaſons of the general indignation of the French againſt them. Accuſtomed, in conſequence of their unparalelled victories and triumphs to witneſs levees of miniſters from the conquered monarchs of the old eſtabliſhed governments in Europe, deprecate the vengeance, or ſupplicate the friendſhip of the French republic, it was not without feelings of indignation that they ſaw the people whom they boaſted to have ſnatched from ſervitude and oppreſſion, and by whoſe fleets and armies they were erected into independency and power, in violation of the ties of gratitude and friendſhip, and of thoſe bonds more commonly reſpected between nations, ſolemn and formal treaties, not only become indifferent in the obſervance of either, but join againſt them by forming the ſtricteſt alliances with their common enemy.

This indignation had been hitherto tempered by the conduct of the American ambaſſador, and by the repreſentations which the friends of both countries had occaſionally made: yet all was inſufficient to heal the breach which additional circumſtances tended only daily to widen.

It was, therefore, upon the circumſtance of the exchange of ambaſſadors, that the French government, thinking

thinking that they had a favourable opportunity of expreſſing their feelings, they not only refuſed to permit the new ambaſſador to remain officially at Paris; but intimated to him that his reſidence as a private citizen was inexpedient. The directory, however, with great honour to themſelves, when Mr. Munroe took leave, obſerved, that the people of America, not being implicated in the acts of their government, were ſtill objects of their eſteem; expreſſing, at the ſame time, their perſonal regard for the intereſt which Mr. Munroe, during his reſidence at Paris, had ſhewn for the welfare of their republic.

But the public attention was deeply engaged in the courſe of this year by a negociation which England propoſed to open for a general pacification. The nature and iſſue of this negociation were regarded, eſpecially by the two hoſtile nations, England and France, with the moſt anxious ſolicitude. But, however deeply political ſtateſmen, probably in both countries, were verſed in the arts of diplomatic diſſimulation, yet the maſs of the people were heartily tired of the war, and ardently wiſhed for peace. The treaties which had been made with thoſe of the combined powers with whom the republic was now at peace, were the neceſſary effects of the advantages it had gained, or the apprehenſions it had excited. Supported by the coalition, they had found their efforts ineffectual to reſiſt the overwhelming flood of French victories; torn by force, or ſeparated voluntarily from its cauſe, their inſulated ſituations gave them no alternative, but ſubmiſſion to its influence, or adheſion to its fate. Although the war had firſt broken out with Auſtria and Pruſſia, it was generally believed in France, that the Engliſh cabinet had been the original fomentor of this wide-deſtroying war, as it became ſoon after its avowed and almoſt only ſupport. Regarding England, therefore, as the ſource of all their calamities, the French could ſcarcely look towards that country without reproach, for the deſolation and horrors of which it had eventually

eventually been the cauſe, and which appeared to them reſolved to perpetuate, to the utter extermination of one or both countries.

The offer of negociation from England was, therefore, conſidered and viewed with a ſuſpicious eye by the French government: and the previous negociation which had taken place between the Engliſh cabinet and that of Berlin, and which had failed, added to the conviction of the directory, that peace was neither the wiſh, nor the expectation of the Engliſh government. It was under theſe impreſſions that the miniſter of foreign affairs in France received from the miniſter of foreign affairs in England, an official note, demanding paſſports for an envoy from the Engliſh court, to open a negociation at Paris. The directory readily granted the paſſports required; theſe were ſent, and the miniſter plenipotentiary arrived at Paris on the 30th of September.

If the ſuſpicions of the French government were well founded, reſpecting the inſincerity of the Engliſh adminiſtration, with regard to peace, the ſymptoms of their own averſion to it, were not concealed upon the arrival of Lord Malmeſbury at Paris. All that memory could furniſh in the former negociations, that calumny could invent, with reſpect to his preſent intentions, and the means which he had brought with him to turn every thing to his own advantage, by his acknowledged addreſs, and by corruption, were circulated with avidity, under the apparent ſanction of the directory; nor did they ceaſe till, on the remonſtrances of Lord Malmeſbury againſt theſe inſults, the government diſavowed what the public had previouſly condemned.

On the 24th of October, Lord Malmeſbury tranſmitted to M. Delacroix, the French miniſter of foreign affairs, a memorial, in which, after ſtating in the uſual terms the deſire which his Britannic Majeſty entertained for peace, he propoſed the eſtabliſhment of ſome general principle, on the opening of the negociation,

which ſhould ſerve as a baſis for a definitive ſettlement; obſerving, that the firſt object of a negociation for peace, was generally that of reſtoring, or giving up what had been taken from the reſpective parties during the war. The memorial ſtated, that as Great Britain, far from having any reſtitution to demand of France, had by a ſeries of uninterrupted ſucceſs, acquired colonial conqueſts of inеſtimable value; and as on the other hand, France had made continental conqueſts on the allies of his Britannic Majeſty, it was propoſed, that the negociation ſhould turn on the compenſations to be made to France, by proportional reſtitutions, the nature of which ſhould be diſcuſſed as ſoon as the principle was admitted.

After examining the memorial, Delacroix obſerved to Lord Malmeſbury, that as he ſpoke in the name of the allies of Great Britain, and was ſtipulating for their intereſts, he was of courſe inveſted by them with powers for that purpoſe; to which his Lordſhip obſerved, that *he was not* thus commiſſioned, but that as ſoon as the directory ſhould agree to the principle laid down, he would diſpatch meſſengers to the different courts, to give an account of the ſtate of the negociation, and receive their inſtructions. It was then aſked, if he could give any preciſe idea of the principle of reſtitutions ſo far as they concerned Great Britain and France? To which his Lordſhip anſwered, as before, that as ſoon as the directory ſhould explain themſelves, he would ſend meſſengers, and aſk for inſtructions alſo on this point.

The directory were not diſpoſed to enter immediately into this explanation. The anſwer which they returned, on the contrary, was far from conciliatory, and wore a form of diſtruſt and defiance, which in that ſtage of the buſineſs was neither politic nor becoming. —With reſpect to the principle of reſtitution, advanced by Lord Malmeſbury, to ſerve for the baſis of the negociation, the directory obſerved that it was too vague and indeterminate; that the firſt object was, the conſideratiou

deration of the neceſſity of a juſt and ſolid peace, and the eſtabliſhment of a juſt balance of power; and that the preſent reſpective ſituations of the belligerent powers ought alſo to be remembered, of which the force of the one was diminiſhed by the deſertion of various Princes of the coalition, and the force of the other increaſed, by making moſt of thoſe powers its allies, or rendering them at leaſt neutral. The directory concluded by aſſuring Lord Malmeſbury, that as ſoon as he ſhould preſent ſufficient powers from the allied courts to ſtipulate for their reſpective intereſts, and obtain their engagements to abide by what ſhould be determined in their name, the French government would give an anſwer to whatever formal propoſitions ſhould be made. Lord Malmeſbury, however, was cautious of declaring the extent and nature of thoſe powers with which he was inveſted. Had he been the agent only of the Britiſh miniſtry, it does not appear that he had received ſufficient inſtructions to proceed in the treaty: but as he propoſed to ſtipulate for the intereſt of the allied courts, the directory had no ſecurity that they would abide by any of the conditions concluded in their name, by a perſon who, though negociating for them, profeſſed to be veſted with no ſpecial authority on their part. In reply to theſe obſervations, Lord Malmeſbury (having ſent to London for further inſtructions) communicated a ſecond paper to the directory, in which, after commenting on the offenſive and injurious tone in which their laſt anſwer was conceived, he obſerved that they were altogether miſtaken in ſuppoſing that his powers authoriſed him to treat ſeparately from the allies of the Britiſh crown; that his powers were ſufficient for the negociation and concluſion of a peace, and that he had fully inſtructed the miniſter in foreign affairs that he could enter into no conference of which a ſeparate treaty ſhould be the object.

He ſtated, that, as a ſeparate treaty was altogether inadmiſſible, the intervention of the allied courts would become

become indiſpenſible in the courſe of the negociation; but that it would be uſeleſs to aſk for full and formal powers from them until the principles of the negociation had been diſcuſſed; that the Emperor had given a manifeſt proof of pacific diſpoſitions at the opening of the campaign, and that the allies might be invited to accede as ſoon as the principle ſhould be agreed on of a combined negociation.

The expediency of forming a principle of this kind was again urged; and the offer of proportional reſtitutions again repeated; obſerving that the directory had neither given any explanation in its laſt communication with reſpect to the principle, nor propoſed any other whereby the end in queſtion would be attained.

The directory, in anſwer, very laconically requeſted Lord Malmeſbury to point out the ſpecific objects which he propoſed, and expreſſed their ignorance of any proofs which the Emperor had afforded of pacific diſpoſitions, as he had been the firſt to break the armiſtice.

To this Lord Malmeſbury replied, that the Emperor had evinced pacific diſpoſitions by an official note, in which he obſerved, that the operations of the war ſhould not prevent him from conceding to any propoſitions for peace agreeable to whatever form ſhould be adopted by the belligerent powers.

The brevity of the official note returned to Lord Malmeſbury's ſecond communication, led him to enquire if that was all the anſwer he was to expect; to which the miniſter of foreign affairs rejoined in the affirmative; and at the ſame time requeſted to know if, on every note that paſſed between them, it was neceſſary to ſend a meſſenger to his court?

The directory, however, declared, what Lord Malmeſbury had not diſcovered, that their anſwers had uniformly admitted the principle he had contended for; and that he had nothing more to do than to point out ſpeedily, and categorically, the objects of reciprocal compenſation.

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Upon the receipt of this laſt note, he preſented two memorials, one reſpected compenſation and reciprocal arrangements; the other related to peace with Spain, and the republic of Holland. By the firſt memorial, it was propoſed that France ſhould cede to the Emperor Brabant, the country on the left of the Rhine, Italy, and whatever had been taken from him, during the war; the re-eſtabliſhment of peace between the empire and France, which ſhould be arranged with the Emperor as conſtitutional chief of the empire; that the court of Peterſburgh ſhould have full liberty to interpoſe in the negociation whenever it thought proper; and that Portugal ſhould be comprehended in the treaty, free from any claims of indemnification on the part of France. As a compenſation for theſe ceſſions, the Britiſh government propoſed to return to France the poſſeſſions taken from it, during the war, in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; and alſo certain eſtabliſhments in the bay of St. Lawrence; requiring, on the other hand, the ceſſion of the Spaniſh part of St. Domingo, ceded to the French at the peace.

In the ſecond memorial which reſpected Spain and Holland, it was obſerved, that in treating with the former power, as no conqueſts had been made on either ſide, there were reſtitution to make. The United Provinces were differently ſituated; the re-eſtabliſhment of the ancient Stadtholderian government was an indiſpenſible condition to induce the ceſſion of what had been taken from them; in which caſe a conſiderable part would be reſtored. If it was with the Dutch republic that the Britiſh government had to negotiate, theſe reſtitutions were not to be looked for, nor could any treaty be entered into, unleſs the territory ceded to the French, by the Dutch, was reſtored, as the ſafety of the Auſtrian Netherlands would be committed by its retention.

Theſe memorials were accompanied by an official letter from Lord M. to Delacroix, in which he obſerved that he was anxious to enter into any explanations that

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the ſtate and progreſs of the negociation could admit, or to receive any counter-project on the part of the directory, which might become equally the ſubject of diſcuſſion. The directory, having read the memorials ſent to Lord Malmeſbury, inſtead of a meſſage, an extract from the regiſters of their deliberations, in anſwer to the communications he had made, requiring his ſignature to the memorials which he had delivered, and the communications he had made, and requeſted the ultimatum of his demands in twenty-four hours. Lord Malmeſbury replied that he conſidered his ſignature of the memorials unneceſſary, as the official note which accompanied them, gave them ſufficient authenticity. But he obſerved that the peremptory demand which they made of an ultimatum ſhut the door at once to all negociation; and repreſented, if the conditions ſubmitted to their conſideration were not approved, or were not to be the ſubject of diſcuſſion, if they would propoſe their own conditions, he would ſubmit them to the conſideration of his court.

Here terminated this celebrated negociation for a general peace,—the directory ſaid that the whole part Lord Malmeſbury had to act was a political illuſion,—that the laying every official note before his court for approbation, would require years to conclude the treaty —that duplicity was evident in the mode of conducting the negociation on the part of his Lordſhip, and the whole part he had to act was confeſſedly paſſive—on all theſe accounts (continues the directory) his Lordſhip's reſidence in Paris was unneceſſary and inconvenient; and therefore enjoined him to leave it in forty-eight hours; obſerving that if the Britiſh cabinet was ſerious in their deſire for peace, the negociation might be carried on by meſſengers from the reſpective parties. Lord Malmeſbury, replied he would quit Paris in eight, inſtead of forty eight hours, and obtaining paſſports he inſtantly left that capital.

The abrupt, and uncourteous diſmiſſion of the Britiſh plenipotentiary, excited much uneaſineſs and general murmurs

murmurs at Paris, until the two memorials appeared, containing the demands of the Engliſh cabinet; and however divided the political opinions at Paris were, and however anxious all ranks and claſſes were for the bleſſings of peace, yet the propoſitions made by the Engliſh miniſtry appeared ſo extravagant, ſo outrageous, indeed, to every principle of ſound policy, that the people of France were at once unanimous in applauding the conduct of the directory for the manner in which they had ſo ſpiritedly terminated this farcical negociation. Lord Malmeſbury's political and deplomatical talents highly qualified him for acting the part aſſigned him by Mr. Pitt and the other Engliſh miniſters; but the very circumſtance of his great abilities, and rooted hoſtility to their nation, made them more jealous and guarded.

To remove every ſhadow of doubt reſpecting the ſincerity of the directory, who felt the weight of the reſponſibility which the conducting ſuch a negociation would lay upon them, wiſely laid before the world a publication of every official paper immediately after its having been received, or ſent. Upon Lord Malmeſbury's arrival in London he found it neceſſary likewiſe to publiſh the whole of his official converſations with the French miniſter of foreign affairs; by which means the anxiety of the public was gratified by having the whole laid before them.

It ſeems evident from the whole of this tranſaction, that the hope of peace between England and France was entertained cordially by theſe rival contending powers. For, during the negociation, the directory had ſent to Vienna, to ſound the imperial court with reſpect to a general armiſtice, and the poſſibility of making a ſeparate peace. Elated with his late ſucceſſes, the Emperor perſevered in the engagements he had formed with the Britiſh court; hoping ſtill to regain the territories he had loſt by the coalition, ſo fatal to the German Potentates.

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An important event in the political world happening about this period, viz. the death of the Empreſs of Ruſſia, its conſequences were expected by every ſtate of Europe with a high degree of anxiety. This politically great, although morally inhuman and barbarous Princeſs, who had aggrandized her own Empire at the expence of almoſt all others, had entruſted her ſon, Paul, with no ſhare in the adminiſtration of her vaſt concerns. When, in her relaxation from buſineſs, ſhe was gently blamed for this ſeeming neglect towards her ſon, now married, having ſeveral children, and at full maturity, in reſpect of years, "How can I," ſaid that ſagacious Princeſs, "entruſt Paul with a ſhare in directing the concerns of above 20,000,000 of people, when he has not intellect to command a company in any of my regiments?"—And Catharine was right.

However, the Emperor of Germany perſevered in the engagements he had formed with the Engliſh court; nor did the death of the Empreſs of Ruſſia lead him to treat a revival of the application in Italy with more reſpect. The diſcerning party, however, diſcovered a mighty difference between the talents and capacity for government in the new Ruſſian ſovereign, and his late imperial mother; yet, blinded by the tranſient ſucceſſes of his armies in the laſt campaign, he laid aſide every ſentiment of moderation in his negociations for a peace; and wiſhed to follow up the high claims made in his name, by Lord Malmeſbury, in the late negociations at Paris. To this we may add, that the tone of cenſure which he had aſſumed after his late ſucceſſes on the Rhine, with reſpect to thoſe Princes who had made their ſeparate peace with the republic, was anſwered by the particular remonſtrance of Paul I. (to whom the French government had loſt no time in making application) with reſpect to his relation, the Duke of Wurtemburgh,—and alſo by the ſtill more lofty declaration of the King of Pruſſia, who offered his protection to any of thoſe Princes who ſhould claim it in defence of the treaties which they had made with the French

French government, and for which they were threatened to be put under the ban of the empire. To enforce this dictatorial declaration, after ſignifying to the Emperor his reſolution, he put his troops upon a war-footing, he made preparations as if hoſtilities had already been declared, and as if the campaign was already opened. Under the protection of ſo powerful a patron, moſt of the Princes who had made peace with the French republic, joined themſelves to this new confederation; and though the prudence of the imperial cabinet prevented it from immediately noticing the affair, it appeared that peace between theſe two courts was not likely to be of long duration. With diſpoſitions ſo avowedly hoſtile to each other, and with claims ſo oppoſite, it was morally certain that no negociation could at that time have ſucceeded.

The grounds on which the Engliſh cabinet founded their pretenſions—the conqueſts made on France and Holland—inſtead of operating on the minds of the directory, as reaſons for concluding a treaty of peace, were provocations of no trifling force to give freſh vigour to the war. Although the conqueſts made by England, of the colonies belonging to thoſe countries, were of ſome importance, the directory, who had formed a ſecret alliance with Pruſſia, on the one hand, and concluded a formal treaty with Spain, on the other, the profeſſed object of which was the humiliation of England, flattered themſelves that they ſhould regain them on eaſier terms than by making conceſſions; the very demand of which by the Britiſh cabinet, they conſidered as contemptuous and inſulting.

Beſides, the intereſts of the Dutch republic were ſo united with thoſe of the French, that no propoſition could be liſtened to which affected its independence. The conſtitution which was to ſerve for the baſis of its future government, was preſented to the Dutch convention, during the period of this negociation, and the formation of ſuch a government as ſhould abſolutely exclude the return of the Stadtholder; and the removal

of the influence of the Britiſh cabinet in Holland was an indiſpenſible requiſite on the part of France. Yet, although the Dutch convention was in perfect harmony with the French government, with reſpect to the abſolute rejection of the Stadtholder, many of its members felt a predilection for various parts of their former government, ſuch as the diviſion of their provinces, and the mode of levying contributions. On this point a diviſion aroſe in the aſſembly as ſoon as the French commiſſioners had preſented the plan which they had formed. And ſo zealous were a great party in Holland for retaining their ancient modes and forms of government, (the excluſion of the Stadtholder excepted) that they ſecretly ſent a deputation to Paris, requeſting the directory's interference in ſupport of what they called the unity of the republic. The unity of the republic, however, which was formally recognized as the principle of the conſtitution, put an end to this ſchiſm in the Dutch councils.

Reſentment and retaliation for the loſs of their iſlands and trade ſtill fired the breaſts and actuated the deliberations of the French executive government; and, among other projects of hoſtility againſt Great Britain, the invaſion of Ireland was that which had engaged moſt ſeriouſly their attention. The ſpirit of diſcontent and religious and political diſcord, which long reigned in that diſtracted country, ſeemed to invite an attempt on the part of France to deliver it from what was deemed the Engliſh yoke, and would be welcomed and ſeconded by the inhabitants themſelves: they were alſo inſtructed that the loſs of Ireland would be highly injurious to the navy of Great Britain, as it was in a conſiderable degree manned, and altogether victualled from the fertile ſoil of that country.

This important expedition had been determined on early in the ſummer; but various circumſtances had obſtructed its execution, till a period, when nothing but the certitude of ſucceſs could have juſtified the enterprize. When the fleet was on the point of departure,

ture, a mutiny on account of enlisting a number of soldiers to make part of the expedition, who had been condemned to the gallies for various military offences, caused new delay, together with the tardiness of Admiral Richery's squadron in joining the fleet at Brest, which consisted of eighteen ships of the line, thirteen frigates, and twelve sloops, with transports, and had on board 25,000 men, under the command of General Hoche.

The departure of the fleet, on the 10th of December, was not attended with happy auspices, as some of the ships of the line were lost in the passage of the Raz, and others damaged. The destination of this fleet was kept a profound secret; for the greater publicity the French government affected to give to an expedition to Ireland, made it generally disbelieved that this was really its destination; and, from the length of time which elapsed before any tidings of the fleet arrived, it was concluded that an attack on Jamaica, or the Portuguese settlements, was the real object of the enterprize; when, on the 31st of December, the squadron under Vice-admiral Bouvet, returned to Brest, from the bay of Bantry, on the coast of Ireland.

Having anchored in this Bay, he had there remained for some days, waiting the arrival of the frigate which conveyed the commanders in chief, and which had been separated from the fleet in a strong gale of wind, the day after its departure from Brest. As the General was the only person entrusted with the orders of government, and as it was impossible, from the tempestuous weather, to remain any longer in the Bay, Bouvet, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the commander of the forces on board, who insisted on landing the army, set sail for Brest with the vessels under his command; where he arrived in safety, and was followed at different periods by the rest of the fleet, except two ships of the line and three frigates, of which one ship of the line and two frigates foundered at sea; another frigate was taken by the English, and another ship of the

the line, after having fought a conſiderable time againſt two Engliſh ſhips, threw herſelf on the coaſt to avoid being captured. As the firſt news of the deſtination of this fleet was the hiſtory of its failure, the project became the ſubject of general animadverſion. The ſafe return of the French fleet, which it was feared would have been captured by the Engliſh, calmed the effervescence of the more moderate French polititions; and the government, throwing the whole cauſe of the failure on the winds, conſoled itſelf alſo by having experienced that the boaſted ſuperiority of the Britiſh navy was no inſurmountable obſtacle to the ſucceſs of a future invaſion.

Such was the failure of this dangerous expedition; for, had ſuch a well appointed army, under the command of ſo able an officer as General Hoche made good their landing in Ireland, it is impoſſible to ſay what the conſequences might have been.

We have already obſerved that the papal court, in the negociations with the French directory, acted with their uſual craft and duplicity. And now, having rejected the propoſitions offered by the French commiſſioners as the conditions of peace, reſolved to try the tu ns of fortune on the ſucceſs of their arms againſt thoſe of the French republic. Although abandoned by the court of Spain and the powers of Italy, who had concluded their reſpective treaties of peace with France, his holineſs flattered himſelf that the deliverance of Italy by the imperial armies, which were once more aſſembling to attempt the relief of Mantua, would ſave him from the degradation of laying his religion and his ſovereignty at the feet of apoſtates and infidels. Full of this aſſurance, he had rejected, almoſt without examination, the renewed offers of negociation which the directory made after the rejection of the conditions already propoſed by the commiſſioners.

Bonaparte, in the mean time, had on the 26th of October, previouſly addreſſed a letter to the cardinal Mattei, Archbiſhop of Ferrara, on the breaking up of the

the former negociation, and the ceſſation of the armiſtice, which he terms a laſt effort to bring the Pope to conditions more moderate, and more conformable to his true intereſts. Reminding the cardinal of the force and courage of the republican armies, he entreated him to repair to Rome, to adviſe with the Pope concerning his real ſituation; obſerving to him, that peace was the wiſh of the republic, his own deſire alſo, ſince by that means he hoped to end a conteſt, which, as it was to himſelf without danger, was alſo without glory. The cardinal, after waiting the events of ſix weeks, anſwered Bonaparte's letter with a memorial, in which he inſtructed the French general, that his holineſs, as ſovereign pontiff, and depoſitary, on each of thoſe precepts of which the Saviour of mankind had given the example to his faithful diſciples and the whole world, had been always diligent to preſerve harmony and peace in the great family of Chriſtians; for which he was inclined to make every reaſonable ſacrifice. He deſcribed the extreme ſorrow which he felt, as the common father of the faithful, for ſeveral years paſt, in ſeeing France delivered over to ſuch wild exceſſes, and the children of the church plunging themſelves into ſuch horrible diſorders; truſting, by means of the gentleneſs with which he treated the wanderers, that God would cure them of their blindneſs, and bring them back to the fold. But ſo far was this ſpirit of meekneſs, which had led him to renounce every worldly conſideration, and make the moſt conſiderable ſacrifices to keep peace between the eccleſiaſtical ſtates and France, from having its due effect, that, blinded by the ſucceſs of their arms, the French government, after ſhearing the ſheep to the quick, were now waiting to devour himſelf; having exacted from the Pope the ſacrifice of his ſoul, and the ſouls of thoſe committed to his care, and the overthrow and total deſtruction of religion, the goſpel, and the church. Alarmed at ſuch daring attempts his holineſs had *devoutly aſked advice at God* what conduct he ſhould hold in ſo dreadful a conjuncture.

ture. The Holy Ghoſt, the cardinal obſerved, had no doubt inſpired him in bringing to his recollection the example of the martyrs; for, after having ſolicited the French directory in vain, to liſten to more reaſonable terms, he was decided to try the chance of war. He reminded the General, that while death, with which he theatened them, was only the entrance of good men into eternal happineſs, it was the end of proſperity to the wicked, and the beginning of their puniſhment and remorſe. Hinting to him, that his army, although formidable, had not always been invincible; he obſerved, that whatever ridicule ſceptics might caſt upon ſpiritual arms, yet, if it pleaſed Divine Providence, the French legions might become a fatal example of their efficacy. As to the glory of conquering the Pope, he admitted that it was not great; but, as to the danger, the confidence his holineſs placed in heaven would not ſuffer him to believe that there was any danger, but for the French general and his followers.

Having thus deſcribed the Pope's *pious reſignation* and his warlike reſolutions, the cardinal returned to the principal point of Bonaparte's letter, which he acknowledged to be the deſire of peace; and which the Pope, he obſerved, would accept, if the conditions were reaſonable, and ſuch as were agreeable to his allies.

The ſucceſs of the application made by his holineſs to the court of Vienna for aſſiſtance, had ſtrengthened the Pope in his determination he had taken of tryiſg the fortune of war. To give efficacy to his deciſion, he ordered extraordinary levies to be made in the eccleſiaſtical ſtates. His army was to be reinforced by a conſiderable corps of German troops, and Count Colli was appointed to take the command.

By this time the unfriendly diſpoſitions of Spain towards the confederate Princes were made known to the Holy See. If the total deſtruction of the papal power was not a ſacrifice made to France, which was ſtrongly ſuſpected, the hope of aggrandizement to the Duke of Parma was believed to have influenced that court in

conſenting

conſenting to the diſmemberment of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. Azzara, the Spaniſh miniſter, had withdrawn from Rome in diſguſt, and had reſigned his place between the Pope and the French republic to the Neapolitan ambaſſador at the court of Rome. In vain did the commiſſary of the French republic at that capital, aided by M. Del Vaſto, renew his applications, and urge his holineſs to pacific ſentiments towards France; in vain did the Marquis of Manfredini aſſure the miniſter of the Holy See, that the converſations he had held with General Bonaparte afforded the moſt certain grounds for coming to ſpeedy and more reaſonable terms of accommodation than had been offered by the French commiſſioners, or, than had even been propoſed at the armiſtice. The Pope believing, from the ſanctity of his character, that the French were unwilling to come to extremes, yet unluckily thinking, that intereſt alone had inſpired theſe ſentiments of moderation, temporized as long as his treaty with the Emperor was doubtful; but as ſoon as it was concluded, he broke off all negociation with the French, and reſolved, with the aſſiſtance of his ally, to reſt his cauſe on the valour of his army.

The *ſpiritual head*, being rather diffident in the efficacy of prayers, was determined to try thoſe carnal weapons of cannons and muſkets, uſed by *the men of the world*, but alas! his warlike ardour was but ill ſeconded by his ſubjects, who, not being actuated by the ſame ſacred enthuſiaſm in the cauſe, or, not having ſo much to loſe in it, viewed the warlike preparations of the martial pontiff with indifference, or, what is worſe, many of them were more anxious to welcome the impious republicans to Rome, than to prevent their arrival!

The truth is, the papal government had long ſince fallen into contempt; and the conteſt between the army of the Pope and the victorious legions of France, ſeemed rather an object of ridicule than apprehenſion. The vigilance of the inquiſition, (once ſo frightful) or the

the police, could no longer prevent the walls of the public places from being the heralds of, what were efteemed by the government, impious and ſeditious libels; and the "ſenate and the people of Rome," and the triumphs of the capitol were the themes of dread and exultation, according to the hopes and fears of the reigning, or revolutionary party. With exultation, no longer concealed, the enthuſiaſtic Italian detailed his viſions of glory, and triumphed in the approaching reſtoration of his country, if not to her ancient dignity and ſplendor, at leaſt to that liberty, which, on the revival of letters, rendered every city of Italy the nurſery of genius, and raiſed up thoſe illuſtrious poets, painters, and hiſtorians, who rivalled the moſt celebrated names of antiquity, and who threw as much luſtre around their country by their proficiency in lettres, the ſciences, and the arts, as their remoter anceſtry had done by the progreſs of their arms.

But to return. While the Pope was making preparations to defend his ſtates, the four confederated cities of Bologna, Ferrara, Modena, and Reggio, had formed their reſpective conſtitutions, and named deputies to determine by what bonds of union they ſhould henceforth be connected, and whether they ſhould remain federate republics, or become a republic one and indiviſible.

The inhabitants of Lombardy beheld with anxious eyes the ſtrides which their neighbours to the ſouth of the Po were making towards liberty and independency, while themſelves were kept under military reſtraint. Nor were their anxieties and apprehenſions unfounded, as it was deſigned, had the Emperor liſtened to moderate terms, to make them the ſacrifices to conſolidate the peace. The permiſſion given to the inhabitants on the ſouth of the Po, to form themſelves into governments agreeable to their own choice, revived the hopes of thoſe Italians who live on the north of that river. They therefore, in a joint application, requeſted of the French commander at Milan, to be permitted to ſend a deputation

deputation to fraterniſe with the Ciſalpine republics, who were about to aſſemble at Reggio. This modeſt requeſt was not only granted, but the prudent commander expreſſed his great ſatisfaction in the proofs which the people of Lombardy gave of their attachment to the fundamental principles of the liberty of nations. The deputies from the four confederated cities aſſembled in congreſs, at Reggio, and unanimouſly agreed to form their reſpective republican governments into one general republic.

The banks of the Lower Rhine enjoyed a temporary reſpite from the dreadful calamities of war, by the armiſtice; but the Upper Rhine ſtill continued to be dyed with the blood of the contending armies, which profuſely flowed in attacking and defending the fortreſs of Kehl, and the redoubt on the bank of the river, oppoſite to Huningue. This redoubt, againſt which the whole force of the imperialiſts in that quarter was directed, had been thrown up by the French, after they had effected their paſſage acroſs the Rhine, on the retreat of Prince Charles, before the republican armies, into Germany. After General Moreau had made his retreat back to Huningue, the French ſtill kept poſſeſſion of this redoubt on the German ſide; and a mutual cannonade had been kept up at long intervals, between this fort and the Auſtrian batteries, without effect. The Auſtrians at length ſucceeded in breaking down the bridge of boats, ſo that an iſland in the Rhine, where a battery, traced formerly by Vauban, had been lately completed, was the only point of communication. The defence of theſe works was entruſted to General Abattucci, a Corſican, who refuſed the repeated ſummons made by the Prince of Furſtenberg to ſurrender. The Auſtrians having opened all their batteries on theſe work for ſeveral hours without effect, attempted, on the 2d of December, under favour of a dark night, to take the iſland by ſurpriſe. The commander of this expedition, having ſelected 1,800 of his beſt troops, ſucceeded at firſt in gaining poſſeſſion of

the iſland; but the French, recovering from their diſorder, made ſuch effectual reſiſtance, that the imperialiſts were repulſed with conſiderable loſs. The Auſtrian commander was killed on the ſpot, and the French general died next day of his wounds. The battle being fought in the night, the Auſtrians were aided in their retreat by the perfidy of ſome Swiſs officers who ſuffered them to paſs over the neutral territory of Baſle: for which violation, upon the requiſition of the French, they were ſent by the magiſtracy of Baſle to priſon.

Prince Charles, in the mean time, having aſſembled his forces againſt the fortreſs of Kehl, and having found means, from the ill conſtruction of the advanced works, to eſtabliſh mortar batteries within a diſtance that promiſed ſucceſs, began to bombard it. Finding, however, that the French were determined to defend it with vigour, he reſolved to make a regular ſiege; and, after drawing a line of circumvallation, opened his trenches on the 25th of November, and began a cannonade, which laſted, without intermiſſion, fifteen days, during which time, the Auſtrians were repulſed with conſiderable loſs, in the many and vigorous attempts which they made on the fortreſs, and the iſlands which commanded the bridge of communication.

The ſeverity of the winter weather, had relaxed the operations of the Archduke for ſome time, when the Auſtrians, by the renewal of their attack on the 25th of December, began to make the defence of the fortreſs an enterprize of danger and difficulty, by deſtroying, once more, the communication with Straſburgh, in breaking down the bridge, and damaging the boats, ſo as to render them of no ſervice.

Having finiſhed the ſecond parallel, the Auſtrians attacked and carried the French camp, and the battery called the Wolfenhole, which protected it. The French, driven into the fortreſs, were rallied by General Lacombe, who then led them on to the attack; and having made the retreat of his troops impracticable, by

by deſtroying the bridges which they paſſed in rallying from the fortreſs, repulſed the Auſtrians with conſiderable loſs. The imperialiſts, a few days after, returned to the charge with redoubled fury, and again carried the camp and another redoubt, which they defended with great valour againſt the French, who, after a bloody conteſt, retook it. The cannonade was redoubled on each ſide, and Kehl was in a few days nearly reduced to a heap of ruins, when the imperialiſts ſucceeded in another attack on the camp, of which they retained the poſſeſſion.

The artillery of the Auſtrians now overwhelmed the French, as they had planted the cannon in their very batteries: as the communications with the oppoſite bank were entirely cut off, and no further aſſiſtance could be afforded, a capitulation was propoſed by General Deſaix, who, with a trumpet, waited on Prince Charles. The Prince refuſed the conditions propoſed. Deſaix would make no farther conceſſions, and obſerved, that he ſhould make uſe of his laſt reſource.—— "What is that reſource you have left you?" enquired the Archduke. The French general replied, "that he had ſo many men, and ſuch a quantity of powder remaining; and ſooner than tarniſh the republican arms, he would blow up the Auſtrian camp, and both armies ſhould periſh in one common ruin!"

Struck with the boldneſs of the reply, the Archduke immediately ſigned the capitulation, and granted the French twenty-four hours to tranſport to the other ſide, the remainder of the ſtores and artillery, which had been employed by them with ſo much valour and glory.

The advantages obtained by the Auſtrians in the capture of this fort, were greatly counterbalanced by the delay which it occaſioned, and the loſſes they ſuſtained. The French, at that advanced ſeaſon, could have made no hoſtile incurſion into Germany, not having the means of accompliſhing any important object; and a ſlight army of obſervation would have been ſufficient

ficient to have kept them within the lines of their fortreſs. The reſiſtance, on the contrary, which they made, was attended with benefits equal, almoſt, to any of their moſt brilliant victories.

For, by the vigorous defence of this fortreſs, and that of Huningue, the imperial army on the Upper Rhine had been kept in continual motion; their troops had been harraſſed, their regiments thinned, and the ſtores of Mentz, Manheim and Philipſburg, entirely exhauſted. But the lengthened employment of the Auſtrian troops in that quarter, was of ſtill greater importance; as it counteracted the plan formed by the Archduke of puſhing his conqueſts on the left ſide of the Rhine; which on his victorious return from the centre of Germany, he might found an operation of no difficult achievement; or, what is an object of ſtill greater conſideration, the reſiſtance made by the French prevented him from ſending off the neceſſary reinforcements to General Alvinzi, who commanded the Auſtrian army in the Tyrol, and who was now collecting forces from every quarter with redoubled activity to attempt once more the deliverance of General Wurmſer, ſtill ſhut up in Mantua, and effect the expulſion of the French from Italy.

The campaign of 1796 on the Rhine, was concluded by the ſurrender of this fortreſs, as the fate of the redoubt oppoſite Huningue was determined by that of Kehl; a campaign which had effected, in the ſpace of a few months, more than had been achieved before during the continuance of the longeſt war, which had ſhaken Europe to the foundation, had made it one vaſt theatre of carnage, and ſtained with blood every river, from the frontiers of Holland to the Adriatic gulph. To the French it was glorious in a moſt eminent degree; for, although they had been compelled to evacuate the country on the eaſt of the Rhine, they had ſucceeded by their irruption, not only in detaching almoſt the whole of the German Princes from the coalition againſt them, but in ſtrengthening their alliance with the King of

of Pruſſia, and ſowing ſuch diſſention between that court and the houſe of Auſtria, as was big with the moſt important, and to the coalition, the moſt fatal conſequences.

To theſe mighty advantages obtained by the policy and the arms of the French, in Germany, the invaſion of that country, operated a powerful diverſion in favour of the French armies in Italy, who had now gained poſſeſſion of the moſt fertile part of the Emperor's dominions, and laid the foundation of republican government, both in the imperial and eccleſiaſtical ſtates; detaching alſo from the coalition in that quarter the King of Sardinia, to whom peace was granted almoſt unconditional, and to the Court of Naples, who obtained it on eaſier terms through the mediation of Spain. With that power a new and more intimate alliance had been formed againſt England, whom both agreed to conſider as their common enemy.

The late negociations at Paris for peace having failed, not only every hope of that bleſſing was vaniſhed, but the flame of war on the continent ſeemed to be kindled a-freſh, and burn with more fierceneſs, and take a wider range of deſtruction. New combinations and coalitions were forming among the various powers of Germany; and vigorous preparations were made for the continuance, or the commencement of hoſtilities, between the contending parties, prodigal alas! of life and treaſure, already ſo profuſely ſhed, as if both could have no end!

The immenſe and formidable power which France had acquired, made politicians to be loſt in conjecture how it would be employed;—we have lived, however, to ſee a ſolution of this political ænigma, of which in its proper place.

We have already ſlightly noticed the unexpected death of one of the greateſt ſovereigns in Europe, the Empreſs of Ruſſia *. Having

* The enlightened journaliſts of thoſe times piouſly and juſtly remark, that "that ſupreme and inviſible Providence, whoſe omniſcience

Having, in the preceding pages, given an abſtracted account of the ſurpriſing military movements, attacks, and defeats, mutually ſuſtained by the belligerent powers

niſcience mocks the ſhort-ſighted policy of men, may interpoſe ſuch events as render abortive the fond viſions of the moſt accompliſhed ſtateſman." This extraordinary woman terminated a life of ſixty-ſeven years, and a reign of forty-four, on the 6th of November, 1796.

Her death was generally aſcribed to an apoplexy, attended with an extravaſation of blood; for, on the morning of the 5th, ſhe was found, by her attendants, ſenſeleſs, on the floor of her water-cloſet. We ſhall not detain our readers with a detail of the incidents of the life of this modern Semiramis, this very ſingular character, Catharine II. of Ruſſia. Suffice it to obſerve, that even an abridged account of her hiſtory, embraces the principal tranſactions that have convulſed the European world for a ſeries of years; and yet it is from her life that her character can be beſt appreciated.

The means by which ſhe aſcended the imperial throne are well known: they are written in characters, legible to the world, in blood, and bear that hideous ſtamp by which the voice of God and nature had deſignated the moſt flagrant of human offences. Yet, if ambition prompted her to crimes, we muſt in candour allow, that wanton cruelty was not one of her vices; and that, if ſhe was an uſurper and a deſpot, ſhe was not a tyrant. The adherents of her huſband found their fidelity to their maſter overlooked by the clemency of her whoſe deſigns they had oppoſed; and ſome, whom a mind of leſs compaſs and generoſity would have ſacrificed to its reſentments were attacked by honours and rewards.

Unfortunately, ambition in a ſovereign is commonly more fruitful of human miſery than the moſt frightful tyranny; and the blood which was ſhed by Catharine, during a reign of almoſt uninterrupted warfare, bears a more decided teſtimony to the natural or habitual depravity of her heart, than the moſt capricious exceſſes of a Nero, a Caligula, a Domitian, or a Heliogabulus, or, indeed, of the worſt of the Roman tyrants. To accompliſh her ends, too, ſhe ſeldom heſitated with reſpect to the means: with her, weakneſs was always a crime; and to want the means of defence, was ſufficient at all times to excite her rapacity. In common with her aſſociates, the deſpots of Auſtria and Pruſſia, her memory muſt ſhare in all the infamy attendant on the plunder of Poland; and while ſhe approved of the horrid and diſguſting maſſacres of Ismael and Warſaw, ſhe becomes an acceſſary in the crime.

The world, however, have conceived much more favourably of her talents than of her principles. Yet ſhe was endowed with more ability than wiſdom; and her conduct evinced, that ſhe was either deficient

powers during the year 1796, in as lucid and impartial a manner as we could; we now proceed to describe those of the subsequent year, which we will see distinguished

deficient in sound information, or that her judgment was the dupe of her passions. It was not an accession of territory that Russia wanted; it was population, industry, and the arts of civilized life; all of which the military system is directly calculated to retard, and to which it is peculiarly hostile. Though she acted, however, upon a mistaken system; yet it must be confessed that her measures were not pursued upon the same weak, narrow, and undecisive principles which characterise those of the other courts of Europe; and her policy in engaging the neighbouring potentates in an absurd and abortive league against the French republic, while she stood aloof herself at the most cautious distance, if it was not great and honourable, was certainly not unwise. She, indeed, prided herself upon her diplomatic abilities, and regarded with contempt the majority of modern statesmen; and entertained a contemptible opinion of the capacity of Mr. Chancellor Pitt.

Of her internal regulations, some are highly laudable, such as the reform which she effected in the Russian code of jurisprudence; but in her arrangements in general, there was more ostentation, than of real utility.

She affected to be an eminent patroness of letters; and was certainly partially such; yet it is affirmed, that her patronage of letters and of the fine arts proceeded more from the love of adulation and applause than of science; and, (so delusive is self love!) while she expected, by her munificence to those whose labours guide the sentiments and govern the opinions of mankind, to secure herself a situation high in the records of fame, it is by literary men it will be handed down to posterity as an object of execration.

Her political character is humorously drawn by herself in a letter to one of her confidants.——"I heartily laugh, my dear Duchess, at the weakness and follies of what is called the *Great World*, and content myself amidst all their public bustle with amusing myself, while I affect to comply with their particular humours, and seriously take a deep interest in their affairs, however trivial and unimportant. I dance with the French, talk high of the dignity of tales and social order with the Germans, persuade the Dutch of my sincere concern for the promoting their trade, while I assure the English of the distinguished part I mean to take in their contest with the French republic—that I will send a formidable fleet into the North Seas, which will be followed with an army which shall overwhelm these enemies of God and man, of religion, virtue, and regular governments—all of which I follow with manifesto upon manifesto,

guiſhed by events, the moſt remarkable, perhaps, recorded in the annals of modern Europe. That ſplendid æra, when the whole civiliſed world appeared to awake from a ſtate of intellectual torpidity, when the chains that ſuperſtition had forged and ſtrengthened for ten centuries before, were broken by the ſtrong effort of reaſon and truth; even that extraordinary period is diſtinguiſhed in its importance, on a compariſon with the preſent times. But as this does not properly fall within our ſubject, we ſhall go on to review the hiſtory of the war in its more immediate, or remote concerns. In general—abroad, we have ſeen the enormous increaſe of the power of France—we have ſeen Italy conquered, and Germany awed into ſubmiſſion. At home, during this eventful year, we have witneſſed an event which was formerly regarded as one of the moſt awful and calamitous that could befal us as a nation—the incapacity of the Bank of England to fulfil its engagements. With all this, order and tranquillity have been happily maintained, and the ſenſe and virtue of the Britiſh nation have riſen ſuperior to the impulſe of paſſion or alarm.

A general election, for a new parliament, took place in the months of June and July, 1796. The court party was again triumphant, in almoſt all the towns and boroughs of the united kingdom.

The new parliament was called together at a ſeaſon of the year unuſually early—viz. the 6th of October, 1796. The ſpeech from the throne afforded much ſatisfaction to the nation, and was welcomed as the harbinger of returning peace. His Majeſty intimated, "that

manifeſto, while I readily accept of their golden gratuities and ſubſidies, and then laugh afreſh at their credulity."

Yet amidſt all her greatneſs, ſurrounded with Nobles, Generals, and a loyal people, ſhe had an habitual dread of death; and uncontradicted Fame ſays, "that under this painful impreſſion, ſhe would not allow a death-bell to be knolled in her capital, nor dared any of her courtiers appear in her preſence in mourning." Yet ſhe ſeemed to have come to her end, notwithſtanding of all her crimes and bloodſhed, in ſerenity and peace.

" that he had omitted no endeavours for ſetting on foot negociations to reſtore peace to Europe; in conſequence of which, a way was opened to an immediate negociation, which muſt produce an honourable peace for us and our allies, or prove to what cauſe alone the prolongation of the war was to be aſcribed.

" That his Majeſty would ſend a perſon to Paris with full powers to treat for this object; but it was evident that nothing could ſo much contribute to give it effect, as the parliament manifeſting both the determination and the reſources of the nation to oppoſe the enemy; eſpecially, as there was an open deſign profeſſed of attempting a deſcent upon theſe kingdoms, &c. &c.

An addreſs was moved in both houſes, and carried by large majorities.

The miniſtry then propoſed a motion, that the militia ſhould be augmented, under the denomination of ſupplementary militia; which, after long debates, was carried.

As another claſs of men, the leaſt neceſſary to the community, might be armed and embodied, (and theſe were game-keepers) it was propoſed by miniſters to bring in a bill for that purpoſe. This meaſure, however, was given up by government.

Another bill was propoſed in order to augment the national land force, and this was to enable catholics to ſerve, upon taking the uſual oaths. This too was rejected by the majority of the houſe.

The bill for embodying a militia in Scotland was attended with better ſucceſs.

The budget was then opened, when the total of the ſupplies wanted, were twenty-ſeven millions, for the year 1797.

We have mentioned in the preceding pages, a ſhort account of the negociation for peace, which was attempted at Paris in the latter end of the year 1796. The ſubject was brought before the Britiſh parliament, and underwent a ſpirited and intereſting diſcuſſion in both houſes. The ſincerity of miniſters was queſtion-

ed by ſome of the ſpeakers, and the extravagant terms propoſed to the French, were vehemently cenſured; while, on the other hand, the miniſters defended themſelves, by appealing to the abrupt and violent conduct of the French, in haſtily diſmiſſing the ambaſſador, as a proof of their indiſpoſition to peace, and which they confirmed, by a general review of the late politics of France. The majority ſeemed to be ſatisfied with the apology of miniſters reſpecting Lord Malmeſbury's conduct in that tranſaction.

A motion was then propoſed in the houſe of Commons to preſent an addreſs to his Majeſty, beſeeching him to adopt ſuch meaſures as would moſt effectually obtain the bleſſing of peace. This motion was negatived. The arguments uſed on that occaſion, we have no room to inſert,—our readers will find them at full in the journals of that year.

The Britiſh nation was, perhaps, never engaged in a conteſt, in which the importance of its naval power was more apparent than the preſent. To that we are indebted for more than ſucceſs in a common warfare, for ſafety and exiſtence. It was, therefore, not without the moſt ſerious apprehenſions, that a ſpirit of diſaffection was diſcovered, in the ſpring of 1797, to break out in the fleet; the origin of which it was not eaſy to trace, though the conſequences of its continuance were ſufficiently obvious. The profeſſed, and perhaps the real motive of the diſturbance, was the redreſs of certain grievances, reſpecting the quantum and diſtribution of their pay and proviſions; complaints not new in their nature, but (as their petition ſet forth) more intolerable than ever, from the circumſtances of the times.

In the month of February, ſome letters were forwarded from the fleet at Portſmouth to Earl Howe, praying for his Lordſhip's influence towards obtaining redreſs of certain grievances. As the letters were, however, anonymous, and appeared to be, moſt of them, written in the ſame hand-writing, and couched in the

ſame

ſame language, they were conſidered as the production of ſome factious individual, and therefore were deemed unworthy of attention. This neglect of the petition of the ſeamen, on their return to port (March 31ſt), produced a general correſpondence, by letter, from ſhip to ſhip through the whole fleet; and at length it was unanimouſly agreed, that no ſhip ſhould lift an anchor till the demands of the ſeamen were complied with. Matters remained in this ſtate till the 14th of April, when Lord Bridport received orders from government to ſail from Portſmouth with the channel fleet: on the following day, however, when the ſignal was made to prepare for ſea, a general diſobedience was obvious; and inſtead of weighing anchor, the ſeamen of the Admiral's ſhip ran up the ſhrouds, and gave three cheers, and theſe cheers were inſtantly anſwered in the ſame manner from the other ſhips, which ſufficiently manifeſted a complete combination. The inferior officers appeared to concur with the men, and all the exertions of the commanders were ineffectual; but, excepting their refuſal to weigh anchor, their conduct was more orderly and peaceable, than could have been expected. Delegates were then appointed from each ſhip, to repreſent the whole fleet; the admiral's cabin being fixed upon as the place for their deliberation; while the officers were reſtrained, by force, from going on ſhore. Petitions were next drawn up, and preſented to the Admirals then upon the ſpot, ſtating their demand of an increaſe of wages, and alſo ſome regulations for their benefit, with reſpect to the ratio of proviſions. They further expreſſed a hope, that an anſwer might be given to their petition before they were ordered to put to ſea again. This, however, was qualified with the exception, "unleſs the enemy were known to be at ſea."

On the 17th, the men were publicly ſworn to ſupport the cauſe in which they were engaged. On the next day a committee of Admiralty, with the Earl Spencer at their head, arrived at Portſmouth; who made

made ſeveral propoſitions to reduce the men to obedience. The Lords of the Admiralty next proceeded on board the Queen Charlotte, and conferred with the delegates from the ſeamen of the fleet; who aſſured their Lordſhips, that no arrangement would be conſidered as final, until it ſhould be ſanctioned by the King and parliament, and guarantied by a proclamation for a general pardon.

On the 22d the Admiral returned to his ſhip, hoiſted his flag again, and after a ſhort addreſs to the crew, he informed them, that he had brought with him a redreſs of all their grievances, and his Majeſty's pardon for the offenders; after ſome deliberation theſe offers were accepted, and every man returned with cheerfulneſs to his duty.

It was now generally thought that all diſputes were finally ſettled: the ſilence, however of Mr. Pitt, in omitting to explain the reaſons which called for an encreaſe of pay to be granted to the navy, when he ſubmitted a motion for that purpoſe to the houſe of Commons, was conſtrued, by part of the ſeamen into a diſpoſition not to accede to their demands. In confirmation of this ſuppoſition, on the 7th of May, when Lord Bridport made the ſignal to weigh anchor and put to ſea, every ſhip at St. Helens refuſed to obey. A meeting of the delegates was ordered on board the London. Vice Admiral Colpoys reſolved to oppoſe their coming on board, and gave orders to the marines to level their pieces at them; the marines obeyed, and a ſlight ſkirmiſh enſued, in which five of the ſeamen were killed.

The whole crew of the London now turned their guns towards the ſtern, and threatened to blow all aft into the water, unleſs the commanders ſurrendered; to this imperious menace, they reluctantly ſubmitted, and Admiral Colpoys and Captain Griffiths, were confined for ſeveral hours in ſeparate cabins.

The ſeamen at Portſmouth, continued in this ſtate of mutiny till the 14th of May; when Lord Howe at length

length arrived from the Admiralty, with plenary powers to enquire into, and ſettle the matters in diſpute; he was alſo the welcome bearer of an act of parliament, which had been paſſed on the 9th, granting additional allowance, and alſo his Majeſty's proclamation of pardon for all who ſhould immediately return to their duty.

On the 15th, the delegates from the ſeveral ſhips landed, and proceeded to the governor's houſe at Portſmouth; and after having partaken of ſome refreſhments, marched in proceſſion to the fleet, accompanied by Lord and Lady Howe, and ſeveral officers and perſons of diſtinction. Having viſited the ſhips at St. Helens, they proceeded to Spithead, where the crews of the ſhips under Sir Roger Curtis were happily conciliated. At ſeven in the evening, his Lordſhip landed, and the delegates carried him upon their ſhoulders to the governor's houſe, amidſt the plaudits of the ſurrounding multitude. Affairs being thus adjuſted, the ſailors afterwards appeared to be perfectly ſatisfied, the officers were generally re-inſtated in their commands, the flag of diſaffection was ſtruck, and the fleet prepared to put to ſea to encounter the enemy.

The public ſaw, with infinite ſatisfaction, that the grievances of their brave defenders were redreſſed, and that they had returned to obedience, and to their duty; but this pleaſure was ſpeedily converted into freſh alarm and conſternation, by a new mutiny in another quarter, which for boldneſs and extent, was without parallel in the naval hiſtory of Britain.

The North-ſea fleet, as well as the ſhips lying at the Nore, appeared to have the redreſs of other grievances in view, beſides what related to the increaſe of pay and proviſions which had been demanded by the grand fleet at Spithead. The mutineers, in imitation of what had been done at Portſmouth, choſe delegates from every ſhip, of whom, a man of the name of Richard Parker, was appointed preſident. After having either confined, or ſent on ſhore, their principal officers, they tranſmitted

tranſmitted to the Lords of the Admiralty, a ſeries of articles, or conditions, to which they peremptorily demanded compliance as the only terms on which they would return to obedience; ſeveral of thoſe articles were regarded as entirely incompatible with the diſcipline of the navy, while ſome others, ſuch as a more equal diviſion of priſe-money, were judged by ſome as reaſonable additions to the conceſſions to which government had agreed at Portſmouth.

The adherents of adminiſtration contended, that, conſidering what had already been done for the ſeamen in general, nothing ſhort of unconditional ſubmiſſion ought to be accepted by government from ſuch daring mutineers and rebels; while ſome of the oppoſite party, conceived that by moderate and modified conceſſions, the love and fidelity of the navy would be more actually ſecured, than by adopting harſh and coercive meaſures. The mutineers at the Nore, on the 23d of May, ſtruck the flag of Amiral Buckner, on board the Sandwich, and hoiſted a red flag, the ſymbol of mutiny, in its ſtead. They compelled all the ſhips which lay near Sheerneſs to drop down to the Great Nore, in order to concentrate the ſcene of their operations; among which was the St. Fiorenzo, which had heen fitted up to carry the Princeſs of Wurtemburgh to Germany. Each man of war ſent two delegates; and beſides theſe, there was in every ſhip a committee, conſiſting of twelve men, who determined not only all the affairs relative to the internal management of the veſſel, but decided upon the merits of the reſpective delegates. At the commencement of the mutiny, the delegates came every day to Sheerneſs, where they held conferences, and paraded the ſtreets and ramparts of the garriſon. Richard Parker, who was conſidered as rebel Admiral of the fleet, marched at the head of theſe proceſſions, which were accompanied with muſic and flags, and had a triumphal appearance, calculated to make new converts to their daring proceedings. The delegates and committee-men went on ſhore and returned on board as

as they pleaſed. This indulgence, however, was ſoon put an end to, by the arrival of Lord Keith and General Sir Charles Grey, who had been ſent down to ſuperintend the naval and military proceedings in that quarter.

The mutiny having now riſen to an alarming height, a deputation of the Lords of the Admiralty, at the head of whom was Lord Spencer, proceeded to Sheerneſs, but they had no conference with the delegates, as they demanded unconditional ſubmiſſion, as a neceſſary preliminary to any intercourſe whatever.

Finding the ſailors rather riſing in inſolence and diſobedience, than inclining to ſubmiſſion, the deputation from the Admiralty departed from Sheerneſs, after having ſignified to the ſeamen, that they were to expect no conceſſions further than what had been already made by parliament, the benefit of which they might yet enjoy on returning to their duty.

This firm declaration opened the eyes of the ſeamen to their deſperate ſituation, who proceeded to take meaſures which indicated a deſign, either to ſecure their preſent ſituation, or ſeek ſafety by flight; ſome of the moſt deſperate among them, ſuggeſted the idea of carrying the ſhips to the enemy; but the majority revolted at ſo treacherous a meaſure, though even adopted to ſave their lives; alledging, that a redreſs of grievances was their primary, and ought to be their ultimate object.

With a view of extorting compliance with their demands, they proceeded to block up the Thames, by refuſing a free paſſage, up and down the river, to the London trade. The ſhips of neutral nations, however, colliers, and a few ſmall craft, were ſuffered to paſs; having firſt received a paſſport, ſigned Richard Parker, preſident of the delegates. In order to concentrate their force, all the ſhips which lay near Sheerneſs, dropt down to the Great Nore. The line-of-battle ſhips were drawn up in a line, at about half a mile diſtance from each other, and moored with their broadſides abreaſt

breaſt. In the ſpace betwen the line-of-battle ſhips, the detained merchantmen and other veſſels were moored.

On the 4th of June, the whole fleet evinced its loyal diſpoſition by a general ſalute, which was fired from all the ſhips at the Nore, in compliment to his Majeſty's birth-day; and the ſhips were decorated in the ſame manner as is practiſed on rejoicing days; the red flag, however, being kept flying at the main-topmaſt of the Sandwich.

On the 6th of June, in the morning, the Agamemnon, Leopard, Ardent, and Iſis, men of war, and the Ranger ſloop, joined the mutinous ſhips at the Nore, having deſerted from the fleet of Admiral Duncan, then in Yarmouth roads. The force of the mutineers, at its greateſt height, conſiſted of eleven ſhips of the line, excluſive of frigates, in all twenty-four ſail. The appearance of ſuch a multitude of ſhipping, the London trade included, under the command of a ſet of common ſailors, in a ſtate of mutiny, formed a ſingular and awful ſpectacle. Several of the officers were ſent on ſhore, but the greater part were diveſted of their command, and confined on board their own veſſels.

Notwithſtanding the enormity of their offence againſt the laws of diſcipline, and the articles of war, the deportment of the ſeamen to their ſuperiors, during the ſuſpenſion of their command, was, with ſome exceptions, reſpectful.

All communications with the ſhore being ſtopped, the mutineers ſupplied themſelves with water and proviſions from the trading ſhips which they had detained; and a party of ſeamen landed in the iſle of Grain, and carried off a number of ſheep and other proviſions, giving in return, it is ſaid, bills drawn by the delegates on the commiſſioners of the Admiralty. During the mutiny, there were ſome exaggerated reports of their plundering different trading veſſels; the chief act which they perpetrated of this kind, however, appears to have been that of robbing a veſſel of 300 ſacks of flour, of which

which they found themſelves in need, and which were diſtributed through the fleet.

After the departure of the deputation of the admiralty from Sheerneſs, a proclamation was iſſued, offering his Majeſty's pardon to all ſuch of the mutineers as ſhould immediately return to their duty; intimating at the ſame time, that Admiral Buckner was the proper perſon to be applied to on ſuch an occaſion.

An act of parliament was ſpeedily paſſed, for the more effectually reſtraining the intercourſe from the ſhore with the crews of the ſhips in a ſtate of mutiny; and ſtill more active meaſures were taken to compel the ſeamen to return to their duty. All the buoys were removed from the mouth of the Thames, and the neighbouring coaſt, by the order of government; a precaution which, above all others, perplexed the mutineers, as any large ſhips which might attempt to ſail away, were in danger of running a-ground. Great preparations were alſo made at Sheerneſs againſt an attack from the mutinous ſhips, which had manifeſted ſome ſtrong indications of bombarding that place; and furnaces and red-hot balls were kept ready.

The laſt attempt at a reconciliation with the mutineers, by a treaty, was made through the medium of the Earl of Northeſk, who was a favourite with the ſeamen on board the whole fleet. On the 6th of June, the two delegates of the Monmouth were rowed on board of that ſhip, and informed his Lordſhip, that it was the pleaſure of the committee, that he ſhould immediately accompany them on board the flag-ſhip, as they had propoſals to make, leading to an accommodation; his Lordſhip complied, and went attended by one officer: he found the convention in the ſtate cabin, conſiſting of ſixty delegates, with Preſident Parker at their head. Before they entered upon buſineſs, Parker demanded of the perſon who accompanied Lord Northeſk, who he was? The anſwer was, "An officer of the Monmouth, who accompanied the captain as ſecretary." Parker then ſaid, "that the committee,

with one voice, had come to a declaration of the terms on which alone, without the ſmalleſt alteration, they would give up the ſhips; and that they had ſent for him, as one who was known to be the ſeaman's friend, to be charged with their terms of ſubmiſſion to the King; from whom he might pledge his honour to return on board with a clear and poſitive anſwer within fifty-four hours."

Parker then read the letter, which is ſaid to have contained ſome compliments to his Majeſty's virtues, and many ſevere ſtrictures on the demerits of his miniſters. His Lordſhip informed the delegates, "that he would certainly bear the letter as deſired, but he could not, from the unreaſonableneſs of the demands, flatter them with any expectation of ſucceſs." They perſiſted that the whole muſt be complied with, or they would immediately put the fleet to ſea.

Parker then delivered to Lord Northeſk a paper, in the following words, by way of ratifying his credentials.

Sandwich, June 6th, 3 P. M.

"To Captain Lord Northeſk,

"You are hereby authoriſed and ordered to wait upon the King, wherever he may be, with the reſolutions of the committee of delegates, and are directed to return back with an anſwer within fifty-four hours from the date hereof,

"R. PARKER, Preſident."

Lord Northeſk proceeded to London with this diſpatch; and after ſtopping a ſhort time at the Admiralty, he attended Earl Spencer to the King; and a privy council was ſaid to have been held the next day upon the ſubject, when it was thought proper to reject the demands of the ſeamen, as exorbitant and unreaſonable. Captain Knight, of the Inflexible, carried down the refuſal of the Lords of the Admiralty.

All

All hopes of accommodation being now given up, meaſures were taken by Lord Keith and Sir Charles Grey to attack the fleet from the works at Sheerneſs, with gun-boats, &c. The defection, however, of the Repulſe, Leopard, and Ardent, on the night of the 9th of June, with other ſymptoms of diſunion among the mutineers, rendered the application of force unneceſſary.

On the next day, ſeveral of the mutinous ſhips pulled down the red flag, as a ſignal for the merchantmen to proceed up the river, and the ſtore and victualling ſhips to remain behind: all of theſe, however, profited by the opportunity, to make their eſcape, after having been fired at by ſome of the fleet.

On the 11th the Neptune of ninety-eight guns, manned with preſs-gangs, volunteers, &c. Sir E. Gower commander, fell down to Long Reach, with a view to act offenſively againſt the mutineers; the Lancaſter, which had alſo been in a ſtate of mutiny near that place, but had ſurrendered two or three days before, accompanied him, with the Agincourt, and a number of gun-boats. But the firmneſs of the mutinous ſeamen being already ſhaken by the formidable preparations of government, and by the want of freſh proviſions and water, it was evident that the combination was falling to pieces.

On the 12th, moſt of the ſhips ſtruck the red flag, and hoiſted the union, to ſignify their deſire of returning to obedience: only ſeven had then the red flag flying. On the next morning, the Agamemnon, the Standard, the Naſſau, the Iris, and the Veſtal, ran away from the other ſhips, and went under the protection of the guns at the fort of Sheerneſs. The crews, however, of theſe veſſels were far from being unanimous, as ſeveral men were wounded and killed in the ſtruggles which took place on board them, between the partizans of the officers, and thoſe of the ſeamen. This defection of their comrades appears to have excited the utmoſt deſpair in Parker, and the other leaders in the mutiny; for, from a return of part of the ſhips to their

their duty, their language became leſs intemperate, their conduct leſs harſh, and their appearance clouded with a melancholy gloom. On the 13th, the crews of all the ſhips intimated an inclination to ſubmit, provided a general pardon ſhould be granted. The crew of the Sandwich was particularly deſirous; and Parker did not oppoſe this ſpirit;—a ſpirit greatly accelerated by the arrival on board of lieutenant Mott, with the proclamation, acts of parliament, &c. of which the men complained they had been kept in ignorance till that period. In the courſe of the evening, the men reſolved to ſubmit to the King's mercy, conceiving that it would, no doubt, be extended to thoſe who had not known to what extent they had offended. In this ſtate of the crew, the Sandwich was under the guns of the fort at Sheerneſs the next morning; upon which, Admiral Buckner's boat, with a picquet guard of ſoldiers, went to the ſhip to arreſt Parker, and bring him on ſhore; and as ſoon as he heard a boat had arrived for him, he ſurrendered himſelf to four of the ſhip's crew, to protect him from the outrages of the reſt of the ſeamen, whoſe vengeance he feared. Upon this, the officers of the Sandwich ſurrendered Parker, and a delegate of the name of Davies, who had acted as captain under him, to the ſoldiers, with about thirty other delegates: theſe were all committed to the black hole, in the garriſon of Sheerneſs. On the firſt appearance of the ſoldiers, one of the delegates, Wallace, of the Standard, ſhot himſelf dead, and was afterwards buried in the high way. Parker was ſecured in Maidſtone gaol. All reſiſtance to the authority of the officers now ceaſed on board the ſhips, and the mutiny, once ſo truly alarming, happily terminated.

The trial of Parker commenced the 22d of June, on board the Neptune, off Greenhithe, before a court-martial, conſiſting of captains in the navy, of which Sir T. Paiſley was preſident. We will not however trouble our readers with a detail of the particulars of the trial of Parker and other delegates and ſeamen, who had been

been moſt active in exciting and cheriſhing this dangerous inſurrection, the circumſtances are ſo recent, and in every one's recollection. We ſhall juſt obſerve, that the charge againſt Parker was for various acts of mutiny on board his Majeſty's fleet at the Nore. Admiral Buckner, and ſeveral other officers were called to ſubſtantiate the evidence.—On the fourth day of his trial, Parker was put upon his defence. In this arduous undertaking, he diſplayed a clear judgment and ſound underſtanding. He recapitulated in a plain, but perſpicuous manner, the evidence which had been brought againſt him, and commented upon ſeveral parts of it with conſiderable ingenuity. He thanked the court for the indulgence which had been given him, and ſolemnly declared that he had no hand in the commencement of the mutiny; but that two days afterwards, he ſaw that a violent ſpirit had ſpread among the men, and he then embarked in the cauſe for the purpoſe of checking their proceedings; and he was thoroughly ſatisfied that if he had not taken an active part, the mutiny which ended ſo unfortunately, would have been attended with conſequences ſtill more dreadful. He called ſeveral witneſſes whom he examined with great ability; but was unable to diſprove the charges brought againſt him; particularly, and which bore the heavieſt againſt him, that of ordering the men on board the Director to fire on the Repulſe, a ſhip which had deſerted from the mutinous ſhips.

When the priſoner had finiſhed his defence, the court was cleared of ſtrangers; and in about two hours afterwards, the following ſentence was pronounced:—"That the whole of the charges are fully proved, that the crime is as unprecedented as it is wicked, as ruinous to the navy, as to the peace and proſperity of the country: the court does therefore adjudge him to death; and he is ordered to ſuffer death accordingly, at ſuch time and place as the Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty, or any three of them, ſhall appoint."

After

After ſentence was paſſed, the priſoner, with a degree of undiſmayed compoſure which excited the aſtoniſhment and admiration of every one preſent, addreſſed the court as follows:—"I bow to your ſentence with all due ſubmiſſion, being convinced I have acted by the dictates of a good conſcience. God, who knows the hearts of all men, will, I hope, receive me; I hope that my death will atone to the country; and that thoſe brave men who acted with me will receive a general pardon. I am ſatisfied they will return to their duty with alacrity."

Parker was executed a few days afterwards, on board the Sandwich. He died very penitent, and with great compoſure. He was buried at Sheerneſs; but his wife, aided by ſome other women, with their own hands, dug up the body, which was conveyed to London; and crowds of people being curious to ſee the body of ſo remarkable a perſon, the magiſtrates interfered, and ordered Parker a decent burial in White Chapel church yard.

The court-martial continued ſitting and trying the other mutineers more than a month; a great number received ſentence of death, and many of the ringleaders of the mutiny were executed; but a conſiderable number remained under ſentence, till after the ſignal victory obtained by Admiral Duncan, when his Majeſty ſent a general pardon to theſe unhappy men, who were confined on board a priſon ſhip in the river Thames.

This diſaſtrous affair excited an enquiry in both houſes of parliament; but the miniſterial-party inſiſted that any diſcuſſion might eventually prove injurious to the ſervice. In conſequence of which it was dropped.

The national tranquillity having been diſturbed, and its exiſtence endangered by the mutinous diſpoſition of its moſt effective defenders, a freſh alarm was excited by an evil which at firſt appeared of ſcarcely inferior magnitude, threatened at once to overwhelm its financial arrangements, and to bury in one prodigious ruin, the

the pecuniary reſources for the war, and even the commerce of the country. The Bank of England had long been conſidered as the palladium of Britain; and the confidence which was attached to this object of national veneration, approached almoſt to idolatry.

The year 1797, which has been more productive of political wonders than any given period during the preſent centry, added this to the number, that the Bank of England failed to fulfil the engagements, and yet public credit remained unſhaken. Theſe are the ſuppoſed cauſes of this alarming event.—

In the courſe of the preſent year, the remittances to the Emperor and other foreign powers, preſſed ſo heavily on the Bank of England, that ſo early as the month of January, 1795, the court of directors informed the chancellor of the exchequer, "that it was their wiſh that he would arrange his finances for the year in ſuch a manner as not to depend *on any farther aſſiſtance from them.*"—At a future period, when another loan to the Emperor was mentioned by the miniſter, the directors obſerved, that another ſuch loan as the laſt, would *go nigh to ruin the country.* And on the 9th of February, 1797, the directors ordered the governor to inform the miniſter, that under the preſent ſtate of the Bank's advances to government here, to agree with his requeſt of making a further advance of 1,500,000l. as a loan to Ireland, would threaten *ruin to the bank*, and moſt probably bring the directors to *ſhut up their doors.*

The dread of an invaſion was another cauſe to have powerfully co-operated to the late event, as it had induced the farmers and others, reſident in parts diſtant from the metropolis, to withdraw their money from the hands of thoſe bankers with whom it was depoſited. The *run*, therefore, (to uſe their own phraſe) commenced upon the country banks, and the demand for ſpecie ſoon reached the metropolis. In this alarming ſtate, the miniſtry thought themſelves compelled to interfere, and an order of the privy council was iſſued on the 26th of February, prohibiting the directors of the bank

bank from iſſuing any caſh in payment till the ſenſe of parliament can be taken on the ſubject, and the proper meaſures adopted thereupon for maintaining the means of circulation, and ſupporting the public and commercial credit of the kingdom, at this important juncture.

A meſſage was accordingly delivered from his Majeſty, to parliament, upon the ſubject. Both houſes took the meſſage into conſideration, and high debates enſued.

In the houſe of Commons, among other obſervations, Mr. Fox ſaid, that all thoſe who had turned their attention to the paper-credit of this country, muſt view with alarm, for years, nay for centuries to come, that the miniſters, or the executive government had, by the preſent meaſure, claimed a power to annihilate, at one breath, all the property of the creditors of the bank—the directors had acted an upright part; but the miniſter who came down to the houſe and endeavoured to prove that neceſſity had compelled him to this fatal and irremediable act of bankruptcy, ought to have pointed out the cauſe of that neceſſity, that it was occaſioned by no fault in his conduct, and that rigid œconomy had been obſerved in every department of adminiſtration.—He obſerved that the directors of the bank often told the miniſter what the effect would be of ſending ſuch vaſt ſums of money abroad; and he did this not only in defiance of the remonſtrances of the bank, but in one inſtance, againſt the known ſpirit, and palpably againſt the very *letter of the conſtitution*.—He concluded with obſerving, that it was the duty of the houſe, if poſſible, to retrieve our affairs; but if it perſiſted in confiding in miniſters, "our ruin," ſaid Mr. Fox, "is inevitable!"

Yet, under all theſe alarms, the national credit was ſtill maintained, and the gloomy clouds that darkened our political atmoſphere were happily blown away; trade and buſineſs went on in their uſual tenor, as if no ſuch occurrences had happened.

From

From this ſeeming digreſſion we return to the more immediate ſubject of our hiſtory.

The war between Great Britain and France was, during this year, almoſt excluſively confined to naval operations, in which the ſkill and activity of the Britiſh ſeamen were eminently conſpicuous, and almoſt invariably crowned with ſucceſs.

In one ſolitary inſtance, the French directory attempted to put in practice their pompous threats of an invaſion of England; but the attempt appeared as if intended literally to burleſque the project, and to aſſure the government of Great Britain, that nothing ſerious was intended from their extenſive preparations. On the 22d of February, that part of the coaſt of Devonſhire which lies at the mouth of the Britiſh Channel, was alarmed by the appearance of an enemy's force, conſiſting, according to report, of three frigates, which entered the little port of Ilfracombe on that coaſt, ſcuttled ſome of the merchant ſhips there, and attempted to deſtroy all the veſſels in the harbour. They, however, made ſhort ſtay there, and ſteered directly acroſs the channel towards Pembroke ſide. They diſplayed Britiſh colours; but were ſoon ſuſpected to be enemies. After turning St. David's Head, and ſailing a few miles to the northward in Cardigan bay, they caſt ſingle anchors to the north of a ſmall promontory, under Lanwinner. There, alſo, they remained but a ſhort time, but moved farther up towards Fiſhgard, and finally, anchored in a ſmall bay near Lanfonda church, when they hoiſted French colours, and put out their boats. The cliff is here exceedingly ſteep and rugged, and a party of them was obſerved, by a countryman, climbing up, ſingly, on their hands and knees, and throwing their muſkets before them. The ſpot which they choſe for their landing, proved that they acted in concert with no party in the country, and that they had no perſons among them who were any ways acquainted with the coaſt. As ſoon as this party had gained the aſcent, they ſet fire to the furze, &c. to apprize their comrades

of their ſucceſs. The debarkation of the whole was completed before the morning of the 23d, when numbers of them diſperſed over the country to procure proviſions and clothes. In theſe predatory excurſions, they ranſacked thoſe houſes which they found abandoned; but they took very few things from thoſe in which they found inhabitants; and committed no wanton murder. Two of the countrymen were killed, but they provoked their fate by their own raſhneſs, and one almoſt deſerved it; for after the Frenchman had ſurrendered, and in fact, reſigned his muſket, the Welchman aimed a blow at him with the butt end of it, when he drew his bayonet, which he had not given up, and ran his antagoniſt through the body.

The alarm was at firſt general, but the numbers and ſituation of the enemy appeared equally contemptible. In the whole, they did not exceed 1,400 men; they were without field pieces, though they had ſeventy cart loads of powder and ball, and a quantity of hand-grenades.

The utmoſt exertions were made, without loſs of time, by the principal men of the country, and before night, about 660 men were collected who might be termed ſoldiers, (though they had never been in action) conſiſting of militia, fencibles, and yeomen cavalry, beſides a conſiderable body of colliers and others, who ſwelled the number, without encreaſing the force. Of this party, Lord Cawdor aſſumed the command, and, on approaching the enemy, he received, about ten o'clock at night, a letter by a French officer, ſigned, "Tate chef de brigade," intimating, "that the circumſtances under which the body of French troops under his command were landed, having rendered it unneceſſary to attempt any military operation, he propoſed a capitulation."—Lord Cawdor replied, that he could only treat on the terms of their ſurrendering priſoners of war, which was preſently agreed to; and, on the ſucceeding day, they laid down their arms. The French veſſels, as ſoon as they had diſembarked the men,

men, ſet ſail for France; but, as if all things were adverſe to this abſurd and unfortunate expedition, the two frigates, la Reſiſtance of 48 guns, and la Conſtance of 24, were captured on the 9th of the following month, as they were ſtanding in for Breſt harbour, by the St. Fiorenzo and Nimphe frigates, under the command of Sir Harry Neale.

The real object of this expedition has given occaſion to various conjectures. The troops which were landed, were ſaid by ſome, to have conſiſted of a number of the Vendean inſurgents, who had enliſted into the ſervice of the republic, but could not be truſted in their own country. By others, they were repreſented as a band of galley ſlaves, and other criminals collected from the priſons of Breſt, and landed in England, merely to quarter them upon the enemy. This report was moſt generally credited, and is countenanced by ſome debates in the French councils, in which Truguet, the miniſter of marine, was vehemently cenſured for having planned ſo diſgraceful a meaſure. In oppoſition to this conjecture, however, it may be mentioned, that the commander of the party declared, that he had with him 600 of the beſt troops in France, veteran and experienced ſoldiers; and the ample ſupplies and ſtores he had with him confirms the declaration of the French commander.—Poſſibly, as the French had by emigrants &c. been egregiouſly impoſed upon reſpecting the diſpoſitions of the people of this country, it was therefore, an experiment to try at once the temper of the people, and the practicability of a ſerious deſcent.

The marine of France, if we except this feeble and ill-concerted enterpriſe, lay during the whole of the year, ignominiouſly blocked up in their own harbours; but their allies, the Dutch and Spaniards, were terrible ſufferers, in two naval engagements, which, conſidering every circumſtance, were equally glorious to the Britiſh arms.

The firſt of theſe memorable actions took place on the 14th of February, off Cape St. Vincent. The Britiſh

tiſh fleet, or, to ſpeak more correctly, the Britiſh ſquadron, under the command of Admiral Sir John Jervis, amounted to no more than fifteen ſail of the line, four frigates, a ſloop of war, and a cutter—of theſe ſix were three-deckers, eight were 74 guns, and one 64. The Spaniſh fleet conſiſted of twenty-ſeven ſail of the line, one of which was a four-decker, and carried 136 guns; ſix were three-deckers of 112 guns each; two of 84 guns, and eighteen of 74.

The Spaniſh admiral, Don Joſef de Cordova, had ſailed from Carthagena on the 4th of February, and paſſed Gibraltar on the following day, having left in that bay three line of battle ſhips, ſuppoſed to be laden with military ſtores, for the Spaniſh troops before that garriſon. On the night of the 11th, this fleet had been diſcovered by the Minerva frigate which carried the broad pendant of Commodore Nelſon, then on his way from the Mediterranean, to join Admiral Jervis. Captain Foote, of the Niger, alſo kept company with them for ſome days previous to the 13th, and that night they approached ſo near the Britiſh fleet, that their ſignal guns were diſtinctly heard. The ſignals were therefore made that night to the Britiſh fleet to prepare for battle; and at day-break on the 14th they were in complete order. The morning was dark and hazy; but about half paſt ſix, the Culloden made the ſignal for five ſail in the ſouth-weſt quarter; and, at eight o'clock, the ſquadron was ordered to form in cloſe order, and in a few minutes after, the ſignal was repeated to prepare for battle. At a little after ten, the Minerva frigate made the ſignal for twenty ſail, in the ſouth-weſt quarter, and in about half an hour after, the enemy's fleet were viſible to all the Britiſh ſquadron. The ſhips firſt diſcovered by the Culloden, were, at this period, ſeparated from their main body, which was bearing down in ſome confuſion, to join the ſeparated ſhips. It appeared to have been the Britiſh admiral's intention, at the firſt, to cut off theſe veſſels from the enemy's fleet, before the main body could arrive to their

EARL ST. VINCENT.

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their aſſiſtance, and, with this view, the faſteſt ſailing ſhips were ordered to chace; but obſerving the near poſition of their main body, he afterwards formed his fleet into a line of battle a-head and a-ſtern, as moſt convenient.

At about twenty-ſix minutes paſt eleven, the Admiral communicated his intention to paſs through the enemy's line, and immediately after the ſignal was made to engage. At about half paſt eleven, the action commenced by the van ſhip, the Culloden, Captain Trowbridge commander, firing againſt the enemy's headmoſt ſhips to the windward; as the ſquadron advanced, however, the action became more general, and it was ſoon apparent that the Britiſh admiral had accompliſhed his deſign of paſſing through the enemy's line. In the mean time, the regular, and animated fire of the Britiſh fleet, was but feebly returned by the enemy's ſhips to the windward, by which they were completely prevented from joining their companions to the leeward, and obliged them to haul their wind on the larboard tack. Thus a part of the Spaniſh fleet was effectually cut off from the main body, and they were reduced to the neceſſity of alſo forming on their larboard tack, ſeemingly with the intention of paſſing through, or to the leeward of the Britiſh line; but ſuch was the reception they experienced from the centre of the Britiſh, that they were obliged to put about, and did not appear again in the action till the cloſe of the day.

The Britiſh admiral having thus fortunately obtained his firſt object, now directed his whole attention to the enemy's main body to the windward, which reduced them at this time, by the ſeparation of the ſhips to the leeward, to eighteen ſail of the line. At a little after twelve o'clock, the ſignal was made for the Britiſh fleet to tack in ſucceſſion, and ſoon after the ſignal for again paſſing the enemy's line; while the Spaniſh admiral's deſign appeared to be to join his ſhips to leeward, by wearing round the rear of the Britiſh line. The intention

tion of the enemy was, however, ſoon perceived by Commodore Nelſon, whoſe ſtation, in the rear, afforded him an opportunity of obſerving the manœuvre. To fruſtrate this deſign, his ſhip, the Captain, had no ſooner paſſed the Spaniſh rear, than he ordered her to wear, and ſtand on the other tack towards the enemy. In executing this bold manœuvre, the Commodore found himſelf along ſide of the Spaniſh admiral ſhip, the Santiſſima Trinidad, of 136 guns, on four decks, which was ſaid to be the largeſt ſhip in the world. Notwithſtanding this immenſe inequality, (the Captain being only a 74) this brave officer did not ſhrink from the conteſt, though the Spaniard was warmly ſupported by her two ſeconds a-head and a-ſtern, which were each of them three-deckers. While he ſuſtained this unequal conteſt, his friends were eagerly preſſing to his aſſiſtance: the enemy's attention, therefore, was ſoon directed to the Culloden, Captain Trowbridge, and the Blenheim, Captain Frederick; and the able ſupport afforded by theſe veſſels to Commodore Nelſon, and the approach of Rear-admiral Parker, with four others of the Britiſh line, determined the Spaniſh commander to give up his deſign of rejoining his ſhips to leeward, and to make the ſignal for the main body to haul their wind, and make ſail on the larboard tack.

The advantage was now evidently on the ſide of the Britiſh; and while the advanced diviſion warmly preſſed the centre and rear of the enemy, the Admiral meditated with his diviſion, a co-operation, which muſt effectually compel ſome of them to ſtrike. In the confuſion of their retreat ſome of the Spaniſh ſhips had doubled on each other. It was therefore Admiral Jervis's plan to reach the centre weathermoſt of thoſe ſhips, then to bear up and rake them all in ſucceſſion, with the ſeven ſhips compoſing his diviſion. The caſual poſition of the rear ſhips in his own diviſion, however, prevented this deſign. He therefore ordered the leading ſhip, the Excellent, Captain Collingwood, to bear up,

up, while with his own ſhip, the Victory, he paſſed to the leeward of the rearmoſt ſhips of the enemy, and gave one of them, the San Yſidro, ſo effectual a broadſide that, having been much injured before, ſhe was obliged to ſubmit. The Excellent then paſſed on to the relief of the Captain which was engaged with a three-decker, carrying a flag; but before ſhe could arrive, this veſſel became entangled with her ſecond, a two-decker. In this ſtate they were both boarded by the Captain, and the ſmaller of them, the San Nicholas, was in a ſhort time in the poſſeſſion of her opponents. The three-decker, the San Joſef, followed the fate of her ſecond, and immediately became a prize to Commodore Nelſon, who headed the party which boarded her from the San Nicholas. In the mean time Admiral Jervis had ordered the Victory to be placed on the lee quarter of the rearmoſt ſhip of the enemy, the Salvador del Mundo, and threw in ſo effectual a diſcharge, that her commander, ſeeing the Barfleur, carrying Vice-admiral Waldegrave's flag, bearing down to ſecond the Victory, thought proper to ſtrike.

Thus four of the enemy's ſhips were in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh, while the van ſhips continued to preſs hard on the Santiſſimo Trinidad, the Spaniſh admiral's ſhip, and the others which compoſed the rear of the flying fleet. The career of victory was, however, ſtopped by circumſtances, not in the power of the Britiſh commander to controul. The ſhips, which in the morning had been ſeparated from the main body of the Spaniſh fleet, were now able to make their approach; beſides theſe, two freſh ſhips which had not appeared in the action, bore down from windward, and two of the retiring ſhips tacked about to ſuſtain their chiefs. Theſe circumſtances, therefore, with the lateneſs of the hour, and the neceſſity of ſecuring the prizes, determined the victorious Admiral to bring to. A little after four in the afternoon the ſignal was made to this effect; and a ſtrong line was formed for the protection of the prizes and

and diſabled veſſels. The enemy's freſh ſhips, on approaching, opened a fire on the covering ſhips, but, though ſuperior in numbers, and freſh for action, they contented themſelves with a few irregular broadſides, and left the Britiſh admiral to ſail off triumphantly with his prizes, which amounted to four, viz. two, the Salvidor del Mundo, and the San Joſef, of 112 guns each, the San Nicholas of 84, and the San Yſidro of 74 guns.

The Spaniſh admiral's ſhip was rendered a perfect wreck; her firing had ceaſed before the cloſe of the action, and ſome even affirm that ſhe had ſtruck her colours. The loſs of the Britiſh in this engagement, in killed and wounded was exactly 300 men. The loſs of the Spaniards, in the ſhips which were captured, amounted to 693; and the ſhips which eſcaped muſt alſo have ſuffered ſeverely.

So important a victory, with ſo deciſive a diſparity of force, is perhaps unparallelled in our naval annals. The ability diſplayed by the commander, was only to be equalled by the valour and adroitneſs of the ſeamen; and a good judge in thoſe matters, and who was alſo an eye witneſs, ſays, that the fire of the Britiſh was ſuperior to that of their opponents, in proportion of five or ſix to one, during the whole of the action; and the expenditure of ammunition was conſequently beyond example.—The Culloden, it is ſaid, expended 170 barrels of powder, the Captain 146, and the Blenheim 180. The Spaniards ſhewed great bravery, but little ſkill in naval tactics; and it is but fair to remark, that numerous and huge as their ſhips were, yet they were ill equipped, and very indifferently manned, and in no reſpect fit for action; their flag-ſhip had not more than ſixty or eighty ſeamen on board; the crew conſiſting of impreſſed landſmen, or ſoldiers of the new levies.

The Spaniſh fleet having been at firſt deſtined for Cadiz, and as many of their ſhips had been diſabled, the

the Spaniards ſhewed no inclination to renew the action, but took ſhelter in that harbour *.

The Dutch were ſtill more unfortunate than the Spaniards in their naval operations, though their failure was,

* *The London Gazette Extraordinary.*

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, March 3d, 1797.

Robert Calder Eſq. Firſt Captain to Admiral Sir John Jervis, Bart. arrived this morning with diſpatches from him to Mr Nepean, of which the following are copies.

Victory in Lagos Bay February 16th, 1797.

Sir,

The hopes of falling in with the Spaniſh fleet, expreſſed in my letter to you of the 13th inſtant, were confirmed laſt night, by our diſtinctly hearing the report of their ſignal-guns, and by intelligence received from Captain Foote, of the Niger, who had, with equal judgment and perſeverance, kept company with them for ſeveral days, on my preſcribed rendezvous (which, from the ſtrong ſouth-eaſt winds, I had never been able to reach) and that they were not more than the diſtance of three or four leagues from us. I anxiouſly awaited the dawn of the day, when, being on the ſtarboard tack, Cape St. Vincent bearing eaſt by north eight leagues, I had the ſatisfaction of ſeeing a number of ſhips extending from ſouth-weſt to ſouth, the wind then at weſt and by ſouth. At forty minutes paſt ten, the weather being extremely hazy, la Bonne Citoyenne made the ſignal that the ſhips diſcovered were of the line, twenty-five in number. His Majeſty's ſquadron under my command, conſiſting of fifteen ſhips of the line, happily formed in the moſt compact order of ſailing, in two lines. By carrying a preſs of ſail, I was fortunate in getting in with the enemies fleet at half paſt eleven o'clock, before it had time to connect, and form a regular order of battle Such a moment was not to be loſt; and, confident of the ſkill, valour and diſcipline of the officers and men, I had the happineſs to command, judging that the honour of his Majeſty's arms and the circumſtances of the war in theſe ſeas, required a conſiderable degree of enterpriſe, I felt myſelf juſtified in departing from the regular ſyſtem, and paſſing through their fleet in a line, formed with the utmoſt celerity, tacked, and thereby ſeparated one third from the main body, after a partial cannonade, which prevented their re-junction till the evening; and by the very great exertions of the ſhips which had the good fortune to arrive up with the enemy on the larboard tack, the ſhips following were captured, and the action ceaſed about five o'clock in the evening.

was, it muſt be confeſſed, leſs inglorious. It was known for a conſiderable time, in England, that immenſe preparations were making in the ports of Holland;

Ships names.	*Guns.*
Salvador del Mundo - - -	112
San Joſef - - - - - - -	112
San Nicholas - - - - - -	80
San Yſidro - - - - - - -	74

I encloſe the moſt correct liſt I have been able to obtain of the Spaniſh fleet oppoſed to me, amounting to twenty-ſeven ſail of the line, and an account of the killed and wounded in his Majeſty's ſhips, as well as in thoſe taken from the enemy. The moment the latter (almoſt totally diſmaſted) and his majeſty's ſhips the Captain and the Culloden, are in a ſtate to put to ſea, I ſhall avail myſelf of the firſt favourable wind to proceed off in my way to Liſbon.

Captain Calder, whoſe able aſſiſtance has greatly contributed to the public ſervice, during my command, is the bearer of this, and will more particularly deſcribe to the Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty, the movements of the ſquadron on the 14th, and its preſent ſtate.

I am, Sir, &c.

J. Jervis.

Liſt of killed and wounded in the ſquadron under the command of Admiral Sir John Jervis, in the action with the Spaniſh fleet the 14th of February, 1797.

Ships.	*Killed.*	*Wounded.*	*Total.*
Victory	1	5	6
Britannia	—	1	1
Barfleur	—	7	7
Prince George	8	7	15
Blenheim	12	49	61
Namur	2	5	7
Captain	24	56	80
Goliath	—	8	8
Excellent	11	12	23
Orion	—	9	9
Coloſſus	—	5	5
Egmont	—	—	—
Culloden	10	47	57
Irreſiſtible	5	14	19
Diadem	—	2	2
Grand Total	73	227	300

Officers

land; and the fleet of Admiral Duncan had blocked up the Texel, during a great part of the ſummer. The Dutch fleet was ready for ſea ſome time before it left the Texel, and the command of it was entruſted to Admiral de Winter, a brave and judicious officer, who had been a lieutenant in the famous action off the Dogger Bank, in the laſt war, and was afterwards advanced to the rank of Captain; but having taken part againſt the Stadtholder, in the memorable ſtruggle of 1786, he was obliged to take refuge in France, where he was promoted to the rank of Major-general, and returned to his country with the army of Pichegru. When the order to put to ſea was firſt iſſued by the Dutch convention,

Officers killed and wounded.

Blenheim.—Mr. Edward Libby, acting lieutenant, wounded; Mr. Peacock, boatſwain, wounded; Mr. Joſeph Wixon, maſter's mate, wounded, ſince dead.

Captain.—Major William Norris, marines, killed; Mr. James Godench, midſhipman, killed; Commodore Nelſon, bruiſed, but not obliged to quit the deck; Mr. Carrington, boatſwain, wounded in boarding the San Nicholas; Mr. Thomas Lund, midſhipman, wounded.

Excellent.—Mr. Peter Peffers, boatſwain, killed; Mr. Edward Auguſtus Down, maſter's mate, wounded.

Orion.—Mr. Thomas Manſel, midſhipman, wounded.

Culloden.—Mr. G. A. Livingſtone, lieutenant of marines, killed.

Irreſiſtible.—Serjeant Watſon, marines, killed; Mr. Andrew Thompſon, lieutenant, wounded; Mr. Hugh M'Kinnon, maſter's mate, wounded; Mr. William Balfour, midſhipman, wounded.

J. Jervis.

Liſt of killed and wounded on board the Spaniſh ſhips, taken by the ſquadron under the command of Admiral Sir John Jervis, K. B. on the 14th of February, 1797.

Ships.	*Killed.*	*Wounded.*	*Total.*
San Yſidro	29	63	72
Salvador del Mundo	42	124	166
San Nicholas	144	59	203
San Joſef	46	96	142
Grand Total	261	342	603

vention, the Admiral, conſcious of his inferiority to the Britiſh force, remonſtrated ſtrongly (it is aſſerted) againſt the meaſure; but, having received a ſecond poſitive order to that effect, he determined, whatever the force of the Britiſh might be, not to ſhrink from the conteſt, but to maintain the honour of his flag in every circumſtance, however adverſe to his wiſhes.

The deſtination of the Dutch fleet was never openly avowed; but it has ſince appeared that the invaſion of Ireland was the object, and that a large body of troops under General Daendaels had been actually embarked for that purpoſe, but were afterwards put on ſhore when the peremptory order was iſſued to Admiral de Winter, to hazard an engagement with the Britiſh fleet, in oppoſition to his ſtrong and preſſing remonſtrances. The Britiſh admiral had, at this period of which we are now treating (the beginning of October), quitted his ſtation off the Texel, and retired to Yarmouth to refit: and it is probable that this circumſtance weighed with the Dutch miniſtry, in preſſing the departure of their fleet. A ſmall ſquadron only, under the command of Captain Trollope, in the Ruſſel of 74 guns, was left as a ſquadron of obſervation; and on the morning of the 9th of October, a ſignal was made by a veſſel at the back of Yarmouth ſands to Admiral Duncan, intimating that the Dutch fleet was at ſea. The whole of the Britiſh fleet, conſiſting of ſixteen ſail of the line and three frigates, got under weigh with ſurpriſing alacrity, and were out of ſight of Yarmouth in the afternoon.

At nine in the morning of the 11th, the Admiral got ſight of Captain Trollope's ſquadron, with ſignals flying for an enemy to the leeward. The Admiral immediately bore up, and made the ſignal for a general chace, and in leſs than an hour came within ſight of the enemy, forming in a line on the larboard tack to receive him.

The Dutch fleet conſiſted of four ſhips of 74 guns; five of 68; two of 64; four of 56; and two of 44; in all

LORD DUNCAN.

Engd for the Hist.e of the War Pub.d by K. Anderson.

all fifteen ſhips of above 50 guns, and ſeventeen ſhips of force, beſides a few ſmaller frigates. The Britiſh fleet conſiſted of ſeven ſhips of 74 guns; ſeven of 64; and two of 50: in all ſixteen, beſides frigates. The ſuperiority both of men and guns was evidently on the ſide of the Britiſh; though, had it been otherwiſe, ſuch is the ſkill and alertneſs of the Engliſh ſeamen, that there is little doubt but that they ſtill would have proved victorious.

As the Britiſh admiral approached near, he made the ſignal for the fleet to ſhorten ſail in order to connect them; ſoon after he ſaw the land between Camperdown and Egmont, about nine miles to the leeward of the enemy, and finding there was no time to be loſt in making the attack, at half paſt eleven he made the ſignal to bear up, break the enemy's line, and engage them to leeward, each ſhip her opponent; and by theſe means he got between them and the land whither they were faſt approaching. The Dutch admiral, perceiving the deſign of his opponent, made at the ſame time the ſignal to cloſe; he was in this inſtance alertly obeyed by the Vice-admiral Reventjies; but Rear-admiral Story, with three other ſhips of the centre diviſion, ran off in the very commencement of the action, and entered the Texel the following day.

The ſignals of the Britiſh admiral, on the contrary, were obeyed with great promptitude by the whole fleet. Vice-admiral Onſlow, in the Monarch, bore down on the enemy's rear in a moſt gallant manner, and was followed by his whole diviſion. The action commenced at about forty minutes after twelve o'clock, at which time every ſhip of the Britiſh had broken the enemy's line, and cut them off from getting into the Texel, the land being then diſtant about ſeven miles. While the rear was attacked by the larboard diviſion under Vice-admiral Onſlow, the commander in chief directed all his attention to the enemy's van; and his own ſhip, the Venerable, was in cloſe action for near two hours and a half, when he obſerved all

the

the maſts of the Dutch admiral's ſhip go by the board; ſhe was, however, defended for ſome time after in a moſt gallant manner, but being overpowered by numbers, her colours were ſtruck to the Venerable; Admiral de Winter himſelf being, it is ſaid, the only man left on the quarter-deck who was not either killed or wounded.

About the ſame time the Vice-admiral's ſhip appeared diſmaſted, and ſurrendered to Admiral Onſlow. Several others of the Dutch (according to ſome reports, not leſs than thirteen in all) had ſtruck before half paſt three o'clock; but the Britiſh admiral finding himſelf in only nine fathoms water, and but five miles from the land, had his attention ſo much occupied in getting the heads of the diſabled ſhips off the ſhore, that he was not able to diſtinguiſh the number which were captured; and the wind blowing conſtantly on the land, the Britiſh ſhips were unavoidably diſperſed. Some of the veſſels therefore which had ſtruck took advantage of the night to eſcape, and two or three of them were ſeen going into the Texel the following morning. The prizes, however, which were ſecured, were eight ſhips of the line, two of 56 guns, one of 44, and a frigate. One of theſe, however, the Delft of 56 guns, foundered within ſight of the Britiſh coaſt, and the frigate alſo was loſt.

Such was the memorable battle of Camperdown; and a more bloody conflict than this is not to be found in the naval hiſtory of this country. The loſs in killed and wounded on board nine ſhips only of Admiral Duncan's fleet was upwards of 700. The loſs of the Dutch muſt have been immenſe. The carnage on board the two ſhips that bore the Admirals' flags was (in the words of Lord Duncan) "beyond all deſcription;" there were not leſs than 250 men killed and wounded on board each of them; and none of the Dutch ſhips that ſurrendered, it is ſaid, loſt fewer than 100 men!

The Britiſh loſt in this terrible conflict, Captain Burgeſs of the Ardent, and ſeveral other officers were killed

led and wounded. The Dutch Vice-admiral Reventjies, died ſoon after his arrival in England. The battle was fought ſo near the ſhore that every manœuvre might be diſtinctly ſeen, and the whole coaſt, for many miles, was crowded with thouſands of ſpectators, who had the mortification of obſerving the entire deſtruction of their own fleet, the pride and ſtrength of their country, without the poſſibility of affording the ſmalleſt aſſiſtance.

In this action, Admiral Duncan diſplayed great nautical ſkill in running his fleet between the enemy and a lee-ſhore; a ſtep which no naval officer had ever dared to take in ſimilar circumſtances; and which even the brave and ſkilful Admiral Keppel did not think adviſeable, as too hazardous to be attempted.

To this bold and maſterly manœuvre, the deciſive and glorious victory which the Britiſh fleet obtained, was almoſt entirely owing. To this it may be added, that he diſcovered alſo a high degree of judgment in cloſing the conteſt in proper time; and in extricating his fleet and prizes from ſo difficult a ſituation, which equalled his boldneſs in ſuch a deciſive meaſure.

The gallant Admiral, immediately on his return, was created Baron Duncan, of Lundie, in the ſhire of Perth, (the place of his nativity) and Viſcount Duncan, of Camperdown, in alluſion to that part of the coaſt of Holland where this ſignal victory was obtained. The official account of this brilliant atchievement we ſhall give our readers in a note below *.

A ge-

* *London Gazette Extraordinary of Friday, October 14th 1797.*

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *October 13th.*

Lieutenant Brodie, of the Roſe Cutter, arrived early this morning with a letter from Admiral Duncan, commander in chief of his Majeſty's ſhips, &c. in the North-ſea, to Evan Nepean, eſq. of which the following is a copy.

Venerable, off the coaſt of Holland, the 12th of October by log (11th) three P. M. Camperdown E. S. E. eight miles, wind N. by E.

Sir,

I have the pleaſure to acquaint you, for the information of the Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty, that at nine o'clock this morning,

A general joy was diffuſed through the kingdom in conſequence of theſe two moſt ſplendid and deciſive victories.

On

morning, I got ſight of the Dutch fleet; at half paſt twelve I paſſed through their line, and the action commenced, which has been very ſevere. The Admiral's ſhip is diſmaſted, and has ſtruck, as have ſeveral others, and one is on fire.

I ſhall ſend Captain Fairfax with particulars the moment I can ſpare him.

I am, Sir, &c.

ADAM DUNCAN.

Upon Lieutenant Brodie's arrival, Earl Spencer inſtantly ſet off to Kew to communicate the pleaſing intelligence to the King. His Lordſhip returned between ſeven and eight o'clock, and immediately ſent the following letter to the Lord Mayor.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *October 13th.*

My Lord,

I have the ſatisfaction to inform your Lordſhip, that an officer has arrived from Admiral Duncan, with an account of his having fallen in with the Dutch fleet off the coaſt of Holland, on Wedneſday laſt; and that, after a ſevere action, the ſhip having the Dutch Admiral on board, had been diſmaſted and had ſtruck; as had alſo ſeveral others of the enemy's ſhips.

When the officer left the Admiral, at four o'clock in the afternoon, he was then preparing to take poſſeſſion of the ſhips which had ſtruck; and to purſue the remainder.

I moſt heartily congratulate your Lordſhip on this important event, and have the honour to be with great regard, My Lord.

Your Lordſhip's moſt obedient,
and moſt humble Servant,

SPENCER.

The ordinary gazette contains an account of the capture of four ſmall ſhips of war.

London Gazette Extraordinary of Monday, October 16th, 1797.

Admiralty-Office, October 16th. Captain Fairfax of the Venerable arrived this morning with diſpatches from Adam Duncan eſq. Admiral of the blue, commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips &c. in the north-ſea, to Evan Nepean eſq.

Venerable, at ſea, 13th of October, 1797, off the coaſt of Holland.

Sir,

Be pleaſed to acquaint the Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty, that judging it of conſequence their Lordſhips ſhould have as early

On the 16th there was a general illumination in the metropolis and vicinity, in celebration of Admiral Duncan's victory. The Manſion-houſe, Admiralty, theatres,

early information as poſſible of the defeat of the Dutch fleet, under the command of Admiral de Winter. To what I ſent by the Roſe cutter, I have now further to acquaint you for their Lordſhip's information, that in the night of the 10th inſtant, after I had ſent away my letter to you, of that date, I placed my ſquadron in ſuch a ſituation as to prevent the enemy from returning to the Texel without my falling in with them. At nine o'clock in the morning of the 11th, I got ſight of Captain Trollope's ſquadron, with ſignals flying for an enemy to leeward. I immediately bore up, and made the ſignal for a general chaſe, and ſoon got ſight of them, forming a line on the larboard tack to receive us, the wind at N. W. As we approached near, I made the ſignal to the ſquadron to ſhorten ſail, in order to connect them; ſoon after I ſaw the land between Camperdown and Egmont, about nine miles to leeward of the enemy; and finding there was no time to be loſt in making the attack, I made the ſignal to bear up, break the enemy's line, and engage them to leeward, each ſhip her opponent, by which I got between them and the land, whither they were faſt approaching. My ſignals were obeyed with great promptitude, and Vice-admiral Onſlow, in the Monarch, bore down on the enemy's rear in the moſt gallant manner, his diviſion following his example, and the action commenced about forty minutes paſt twelve o'clock. The Venerable ſoon got through the enemy's line, and I began a cloſe action, with my diviſion on their van, which laſted near two hours and a half, when I obſerved all the maſts of the Dutch Admiral's ſhip to go by the board; ſhe was, however, defended for ſome time in a moſt gallant manner; but being overpreſſed by numbers, her colours were ſtruck, and Admiral de Winter was ſoon brought on board the Venerable. On looking around me I obſerved the ſhip bearing the Vice-admiral's flag was alſo diſmaſted, and had ſurrendered to Vice-admiral Onſlow; and that many others had likewiſe ſtruck. Finding we were in nine fathoms water, and not farther than five miles from the land, my attention was ſo much taken up in getting the heads of the diſabled ſhips off ſhore, that I was not able to diſtinguiſh the number of ſhips captured; and the wind having been conſtantly on the land ſince, we have unavoidably been much diſperſed, ſo that I have not been able to gain an exact account of them; but we have taken poſſeſſion of eight or nine; more of them had ſtruck, but taking advantage of the night, and being ſo near their own coaſt, they ſucceeded in getting off, and ſome of them were ſeen going into the Texel the next morn-

atres, and other public buildings, were ſplendidly illuminated. Few events have given riſe to more general and ardent demonſtrations of joy.

We

It is with the greateſt pleaſure and ſatisfaction I make known to their Lordſhips the very gallant behaviour of Vice-admiral Onſlow, the captains, officers, ſeamen, and marines of the ſquadron, who all appeared actuated with the truly Britiſh ſpirit, at leaſt thoſe that I had an opportunity of ſeeing.

One of the enemy's ſhips caught fire in the action, and drove very near the Venerable; but I have the pleaſure to ſay it was extinguiſhed, and ſhe is one of the ſhips in our poſſeſſion. The ſquadron has ſuffered much in their maſts, yards, and rigging, and many of them have loſt a number of men; however in no proportion to that of the enemy. The carnage on board the two ſhips that bore the Admirals' flags has been beyond all deſcription; they have had no leſs than 250 men killed and wounded on board of each ſhip; and here I have to lament the loſs of Captain Burgeſs, of his Majeſty's ſhip the Ardent, who brought that ſhip into action in the moſt gallant and maſterly manner, but was unfortunately killed ſoon after. However, the ſhip continued the action cloſe, until quite diſabled. The public have loſt a good and gallant officer in Captain Burgeſs, and I, with others, a ſincere friend.

Captain Trollope's exertions and active good conduct in keeping ſight of the enemy's fleet until I came up, have been truly meritorious, and, I truſt, will meet a juſt reward.

I ſend this by captain Fairfax, by whoſe able advice I profited much during the action, and who will give their Lordſhips any further particulars they may wiſh to know.

As moſt of the ſhips of the ſquadron are much diſabled, and ſeveral of the prizes diſmaſted, I ſhall make the beſt of my way with them to the Nore.

I herewith tranſmit you a liſt of killed and wounded on board ſuch of the ſquadron as I have been able to collect.

I am, Sir,

Your moſt obedient, humble ſervant,

ADAM DUNCAN.

A liſt of the killed and wounded on board the ſhips of Admiral Duncan's ſquadron, in an action with the Dutch on the 11th of October, 1797.

Ships.	*Killed.*	*Wounded.*	*Total.*
Venerable	15	62	77
Monarch	36	100	136

Ships.

We ſhall only further mention, that a national thankſgiving for the three great naval victories of Lords Howe, St. Vincent, and Duncan, took place on the 19th

Ships.	*Killed.*	*Wounded.*	*Total.*
Bedford	30	41	71
Powerful	10	78	88
Iſis	2	21	23
Ardent	41	107	148
Agincourt	—	—	—
Belliqueux	25	78	103
Lancaſter	3	18	21
Triumph	29	55	84
Grand Total	171	560	731

Officers killed and wounded.

Venerable.—Lieutenant Clay, wounded; lieutenant Douglas, wounded; lieutenant Chambers, of marines, wounded; Mr. Stewart, midſhipman, wounded; Mr. Brown, pilot, wounded.

Monarch.—Mr. J. P. Tindall, midſhipman, killed; Mr. Moyle Finlay, midſhipman, killed; lieutenant Retalick, wounded; lieutenant Smith, of marines, wounded; Mr. George Maſſie, Mr. Benjamin Clement, Mr. Daniel Sherwin, and Mr. Charles Slade, midſhipmen, wounded; Mr. John Chimley, maſter's mate, wounded.

Bedford.—Lieutenant Keenor, wounded.

Powerful.—Lieutenant Jennings, wounded; Mr. Mel. Jones, boatſwain, wounded; Mr. Daniel Rogers, midſhipman, wounded; lieutenant Walker, of marines, wounded.

Iſis.—Lieutenant Charles Rea, of marines, wounded; Mr. Simon Fraſer, and Mr. John Walker, midſhipmen, wounded.

Ardent.—Captain Burgeſs, killed; Mr. Michael Dunn, maſter, killed; lieutenant James Roſe, and lieutenant John Sobriel, wounded; Captain Cuthbert, of marines, wounded; Mr. John Tracey, and Mr. John Alrey, maſter's mates, wounded; Mr. T. Leopard, midſhipman, wounded; Mr. John Taylor, captain's clerk, ſlightly wounded; Mr. George Killiar, minſhipman, ſlightly wounded.

Belliqueux.—Lieutenant Robert Webſter, killed; Mr. James Milne, maſter's mate, killed; lieutenant Robert England, ſlightly wounded; captain James Caſſel, of marines, ſlightly wounded; Mr. James Scott, midſhipman, wounded.

Lancaſter.—Lieutenant Morgan, wounded; lieutenant Sandys, of marines, wounded.

Triumph.

19th of December. In the metropolis a finer ſpectacle was never exhibited than that of his Majeſty going in proceſſion to St. Paul's; and the recollection of the ever memorable events which gave riſe to it, added highly to the gaiety of the ſcene. The remarkable beauty and clearneſs of the day (the fineſt that had taken place for many weeks) greatly encreaſed the ſplendor and brilliancy of the ſpectacle.

Long before day-light, the houſes through which the proceſſion was to paſs, began to fill.

The military, conſiſting of three brigades of foot guards, the volunteer corps of London, and Weſtminſter

Triumph.—Captain Eſſington, ſlightly wounded in the arm; Mr. Chapman, firſt lieutenant, ſlightly wounded in the head; Mr. Trollope, third lieutenant, ſlightly wounded in the foot; Mr. Read, maſter, ſlightly bruiſed; Mr. Jones, midſhipman, ſlightly wounded in the face.

ADAM DUNCAN.

Venerable, off Orfordneſs, October 15th, 1797.

Sir,

In addition to my letter of the 13th inſtant, containing the particulars of the action of the 11th, and which I have not been able to ſend away until this day, I have to acquaint you, for the information of the Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty, that, from the wind continuing to blow on the Dutch coaſt, the ſhips have had great difficulty in keeping off the ſhore, and that we have unavoidably been ſeparated. On Friday laſt the wind blew ſtrong from the W. S. W. to the W. N. W. and continued ſo to do until Saturday morning: it then ſhifted to the north, when I made the ſignal to wear, ſtood to the weſtward, and fortunately anchored here laſt evening, the Venerable being ſo leaky, that, with all her pumps going, we could but juſt keep her free. This morning I obſerved the Monarch, Powerful, Lancaſter, and Beaulieu, at anchor near us, three near the Kentiſh Knock, and three in Hoſley Bay. The wind is at N. W. and much againſt the diſabled ſhips: I have therefore ſent the Lancaſter and Beaulieu out to render them aſſiſtance.

Sir Thomas Williams, in the Endymion, who joined me the day after the action, I alſo ſent in ſhore, to keep by and aſſiſt the diſabled ſhips; and I am informed that, in the courſe of the night, he fell in with a Dutch ſhip of the line off the Texel, and had engaged her, but I have not heard the particulars. I am, Sir,

Your moſt obedient, humble Servant,

ADAM DUNCAN.

Evan Nepean, Eſq.

ſter light horſe, came upon duty at ſeven o'clock; the latter aſſembled in Hyde-Park, and before eight moved down Conſtitution Hill, on their route through Pall-Mall, and to the city. His Majeſty, ſeeing them paſs, did them the honour to require them to countermarch by the gate near Pimlico, where he was pleaſed to ſtand to ſee them march paſt him. His Majeſty was moſt graciouſly pleaſed to expreſs his high conſideration of the corps in the moſt gratifying terms. About ſeven, the military moved to their ſtations in the different ſtreets which they were appointed to line. The foot guards took the duty from St. James's to Temple Bar, inſide of which, the ſtreets were lined by the two regiments of city militia, the two regiments of Eaſt India volunteers, and ſeveral other corps of the ſame deſcription, to whoſe military and decorous conduct, the public gave the moſt flattering and deciſive teſtimony.

At eight o'clock, the ſeamen and marines choſen to eſcort the colours, formed before the Admiralty. They were fine looking men, and the trophies of their bravery were labelled—"June 1794," "February 1797," "October 1797," &c.

The proceſſion began with two colours taken from the French, three from the Spaniards, and four from the Dutch; the colours were carried on artillery waggons, and each ſet followed by a party of naval lieutenants on foot, who had ſerved in the ſeveral engagements in which they were won. A very large detachment of marines, with muſic playing, followed; and the whole corps were ranged in the cathedral from the weſt door to the choir. The following Admirals, in carriages, brought up the rear of this part of the proceſſion: Lord Viſcount Duncan, Sir Charles Thompſon, Sir Richard Onſlow, Sir Alan Gardner, Sir Thomas Paiſley, Sir Roger Curtis, Sir Horatio Nelſon, Lords Hugh Seymour, Caldwell, Waldegrave, Hamilton, Goodall, Young, Lindſay, Gambier, Bazley, Captain Sir Henry Trollope. This was by far the moſt intereſting part of the ſpectacle. The deportment of

theſe gallant ſons of the ocean, was extremely dignified.

The Lords and Commons having aſſembled at eight, their proceſſion began ſoon afterwards in the following order:—

The Commons in carriages, followed by the ſpeaker in his ſtate carriage, with his mace-bearer and chaplain.

Three knight marſhalmen.

Clerks of the crown.

Maſters in chancery.

The twelve judges.

The Peers in the order of their rank, the youngeſt Baron firſt, and the ſenior Duke bringing up the rear.

Lord high chancellor.

Theſe parts of the proceſſion having reached St. Paul's before nine, the firing of the Park guns announced, ſoon after ten, that their Majeſties had entered their carriages at St. James's, and

THE ROYAL PROCESSION

began in the following order, each carriage being drawn by ſix capriſoned horſes, except that of their Majeſties which was drawn by eight creams.

Houſehold of the Duke of Glouceſter.

The Duke.

Houſehold of the Duke of York.

The Duke.

Houſehold of the Duke of Clarence.

The Duke.

Queen's houſehold.

Firſt coach—ladies of the bed-chamber.

Second coach—the maids of honour.

Third coach—equerries

Fourth coach—ladies of the bed-chamber.

Fifth coach—maſter of the horſe.

King's houſehold.

Sixth coach—gentlemen uſhers of the privy chamber

Seventh coach—equerries.

Eight coach—lord ſteward, &c.

Ninth

Ninth coach—lords of the bed-chamber.
Tenth coach—maſter of the horſe.
THEIR MAJESTIES
with the miſtreſs of the robes to the Queen, and the lady of the bed chamber in waiting.
PRINCESSES
Attendants on the Princeſſes.

The Princeſſes were dreſſed in purple ſatins, trimmed with gold, and wore bandeaus of purple and gold in their hair.

The horſes of the twenty carriages of ſtate, amounting to 122, formed, perhaps, the fineſt equeſtrian ſight ever ſeen in any country.

The crowd in the ſtreets, from St. James's to the cathedral, was immenſe.

During the proceſſion of the houſe of Commons down the left ſide of Fleet-ſtreet, the Lord Mayor, the two ſheriffs, four of the common council (as repreſentatives of the corporation) in their carriages, preceded by the marſhals and city officers, went to Temple Bar, where they waited to receive his Majeſty; to whom the Lord Mayor delivered the city ſword; which being graciouſly returned by the King, the Lord Mayor, with the ſheriffs and city deputation, all elegantly dreſſed in their gowns of office, rode bare-headed before his Majeſty to the cathedral church.

His Majeſty was received with every mark of attention, reſpect, and applauſe, which his goodneſs of heart, and love for his people, ſo eminently merit.

When the proceſſion reached St. Paul's, the lieutenants, taking the flags from the waggons, attended by the ſeamen and marines, divided themſelves for their captains to paſs up the body of the church, to their ſeats in the galleries on each ſide of the choir. The colours, on being brought within the church, were carried in proceſſion, under the loudeſt ſhouts of applauſe, and grand martial muſic, to the middle of the dome, where they were placed in a circle.

Their

Their Majeſties, the Princes and Princeſſes, Lords, Commons, Mayor of London, &c. were all ſeated in ſplendid apartments fitted up for the occaſion.

The biſhop of Lincoln, dean of St. Paul's, preached an excellent and ſuitable ſermon.

It has been often remarked, that while the Engliſh nation is invincible at ſea, they ſhould never engage, without the moſt urgent neceſſity, in military operations on the land. In the month of July, the Spaniards received ſome conſolation for their ignominious defeat off cape St. Vincent, by the failure of an attempt on the iſland of Teneriffe by a part of the ſame ſquadron which had defeated their grand fleet on the 14th of February. Lord St. Vincent having received intelligence that Santa Cruz, in the iſland of Teneriffe, might be aſſailed with ſucceſs; for this purpoſe, he diſpatched Admiral Nelſon, with four ſhips of the line, three frigates, and two cutters, to make an attack upon that place. On his arrival before the town, Rear-admiral Nelſon, finding it impoſſible for the ſhips to approach ſufficiently near the town, ordered, from the different ſhips under his command, 1,000 men to be landed under the command of Captain Trowbridge, of the Culloden, and Captains Hood, Thompſon, Freemantle, Bowen, Miller, and Waller. The boats of the fleet were accordingly manned, and the landing was effected in the courſe of the night. The party, with little or no oppoſition, entered the town of Santa Cruz, of which they were in full poſſeſſion for about ſeven hours. Finding it impracticable, however, to ſtorm the fort, they prepared for their retreat; but in this they were prevented by freſh reinforcements having arrived to the garriſon, and by the boats having been ſtoven by the violence of the ſurge upon the beach. Thus circumſtanced, the Spaniſh general ſummoned the Britiſh commander to ſurrender; but received for anſwer, that he would not capitulate as long as there remained a ſingle man alive. The conduct of the Spaniard, on this occaſion, reflects the higheſt honour

honour on his character, and on the military profeſſion. On receiving the reply of the Britiſh commander, it is ſaid that he immediately diſpatched a polite meſſage to Admiral Nelſon, informing him, that, to ſpare the effuſion of human blood, he, and the remains of his forces, were at liberty to return in peace to their ſhips; and that he would even provide them with boats, as their own were unfit for ſervice.—With a generoſity worthy of a great man, it is added, he furniſhed the retreating invaders with a ratio of biſcuit and wine, and conveyed them on board their reſpective veſſels, not as enemies, but as friends. But the loſs of the Britiſh in killed and wounded in this unfortunate expedition was very conſiderable. Rear-admiral Nelſon loſt his right arm by a cannon-ſhot. Captain Bowen, of the Terpſichore, an excellent and reſpectable officer, with his firſt-lieutenant, and the whole of his boat's crew, went to the bottom by a ſhell falling in the boat as ſhe was rowing to the ſhore. The captain of the marines of the Emerald frigate was alſo killed, and Captain Freemantle wounded. The total loſs in killed and wounded was near 300 men—a ſlaughter almoſt as numerous as in the memorable victory of the 14th of February.

It would exceed our limits, and render our narrative tedious to the reader, to enumerate the captures which have been made in the courſe of the campaign by detached cruizers and ſingle frigates. But, as connected with the general events of the war, it may be proper to mention, that, on the 16th of July, Sir John Borlaſe Warren, with the ſquadron under his command, diſcovered in Hodierne Bay, a French frigate, with fourteen tranſports for the French navy under her convoy. The Britiſh commodore made prizes of eight of them, deſtroyed two, and the Calliope frigate, which was the convoy, was driven on ſhore, and ſcuttled by her own crew.

In the Weſt Indies, Sir Ralph Abercrombie, with the forces under his command, along with Rear-admi-

ral Harvey, took Trinidad from the Spaniards, in the month of February.

On the 12th of that month, the forces deſtined for the expedition were embarked at Fort-Royal, in Martinique. On the 16th, the Britiſh ſquadron came within ſight of Trinidad, and ſtood towards the gulf of Paria. At half paſt three in the afternoon, the Spaniſh ſquadron was diſcovered at anchor in Shagramus Bay, conſiſting of four ſail of the line and one frigate, under a rear-admiral's flag.—At two o'clock the following morning, the Spaniſh ſquadron was diſcovered to be on fire, and the whole of the ſhips were conſumed except one. This unexpected change of affairs directed the whole attention of the General to the attack of the town, of which he poſſeſſed himſelf with little or no reſiſtance. The whole colony ſoon after ſubmitted to his Britannic Majeſty.

But an attempt, which proved not ſo ſucceſsful, was ſoon after made by the ſame troops which had reduced Trinidad, againſt Porto Rico. On Monday the 17th of April, the fleet under the command of Admiral Harvey, made the iſland of Porto Rico, and came to anchor at Congrejos Point. The next morning the troops under Sir Ralph Abercrombie were diſembarked in a ſmall bay on the north ſide of the iſland, with little oppoſition from about 100 of the enemy. On approaching the town, however, it was found to be too ſtrongly fortified, and too actively defended, by gun-boats and other craft, to admit of any hope of ſucceſs. After bombarding the town for ſome days, on the ſouth ſide, near a large magazine, without effect, the general re-embarked his troops on the 30th of April, having loſt about 200 men in the attempt.

Upon General Abercrombie's arrival in Barbadoes, he propoſed to the council to raiſe, arm, and train, ſome regiments of negroes. They dared not to make the experiment. The ſame meaſure was propoſed to be adopted in Jamaica—they too refuſed agreeing to it for the ſame reaſons.—So little confidence have the traffickers

flickers in man, in the fidelity of thoſe whom they cruelly hold in chains.

The genius of the French, as ſays a lively writer, eternally on the wing, repreſents the combats of Bonaparte with the power of Auſtria in Italy, to that of Hercules with the Hydra of Lerna. One vaſt army was no ſooner deſtroyed, than another, ſtill more formidable, was ſeen to aſſume its place, and threaten a new deſtruction to the formidable and victorious aſſailant. Not diſcouraged by the calamitous defeat at Arcole, and the conſequent deſtruction of his braveſt troops, the Emperor, during the ſhort reſpite which the dead of winter afforded, redoubled his efforts, and depopulated his moſt flouriſhing provinces, to raiſe freſh levies for the relief of Mantua, and the expulſion of the republican armies from his Italian dominions. The young men of Vienna, not excepting thoſe of the higheſt families, were embodied into a military corps, and ſent poſt to recruit the army of General Alvinzi. The grand object was ſtill the ſame, to penetrate at ſome point or other, the line of defence eſtabliſhed by Bonaparte; to march down a ſtrong column upon Mantua, to raiſe the blockade, to bring once more the experienced Wurmſer into the open field, and, by one bold effort, to annihilate all the preceding ſucceſſes of the French commander, and future ſchemes of operation. It required the genius of Bonaparte, ever fruitful in reſources, to ward off a blow ſo judiciouſly aimed—it required the good fortune, which never deſerted him, to give effect to thoſe bold and unprecedented manœuvres which he ſucceſsfully employed.

December was almoſt ended before the French commander prepared to take the field. The army of his opponent, Alvinzi, amounted at this time, according to report, to 50,000 men, and was poſted on the Brenta and the Tyrol; while the republican army was poſted along the Adige, occupied the line of Montebello, with advanced guards before Verona and Porto Legnago. Mantua ſtill remained in a ſtate of cloſe blockade. According

cording to a letter from the Emperor to General Wurmſer, the garriſon muſt have been reduced to a ſtate of the greateſt extremity, in the article of proviſions eſpecially, having no other animal food but the fleſh of their horſes.

The Auſtrian army commenced its hoſtile movements on the 7th of January; and, on the following day, the diviſion which had been poſted at Padua, attacked the advanced guard of General Angereau, which was poſted at Bevelagna, before Porto Legnago. After a ſmart ſkirmiſh, the Adjutant-General Dufaux, who commanded there, found himſelf under a neceſſity of retreating to St. Zeno, and the next day to Porto Legnago, having been enabled by his reſiſtance to give time to the whole line to be fully appriſed of the march of the enemy, and prepared to receive him.

The French commander in chief was at this time at Bologna. He, however, loſt no time in detaching 2,000 men, who were quartered there towards the Adige, for the relief of Augereau, and immediately after ſet out for Verona, before which place the Auſtrians appeared on the morning of the 12th. They attacked the advanced guard under General Maſſena, and were completely defeated, with the loſs of 600 priſoners and three pieces of cannon. The attack of the Auſtrians appears to have been pretty general along the French line; for, at the ſame moment that the advanced poſts of Maſſena were aſſailed, the diviſion under General Joubert was alſo attacked at Corona. The Auſtrians at firſt gained ſome ſlight advantages, and became maſters of a redoubt. General Joubert, however, ſoon rallied his ſoldiers, retook the redoubt by ſtorm, forced the enemy to retire to their former poſition and took upwards of 300 priſoners.

Far from loſing heart by this partial defeat, the Auſtrians renewed the attack on Joubert, the following day, and with ſuch a ſuperiority of force as compelled him to evacuate Corona, and to take a poſition before Rivoli. This movement of the enemy left the French general

general no longer in doubt with reſpect to the intentions of Alvinzi. It was now evident that the Auſtrian general with his main force, was deſirous of penetrating his line by the way of Rivoli, and of reaching Mantua by that route; the force with which this attack was to be made, was at leaſt double in number to that under General Joubert. Bonaparte, who viewed all theſe movements with anxious ſolicitude, now perceived that no time was to be loſt, He ordered immediately large reinforcements from the diviſion of Maſſena, and other quarters, to Rivoli, where he arrived in perſon with his ſtaff the ſame day near midnight. The diſpoſitions of General Joubert, though excellent for a ſmall diviſion, he found by no means adapted to the reinforcements he had brought; he therefore immediately ordered them to reſume ſome of the poſitions which they had evacuated; and particularly the gate of St. Marco, which was the key of the whole. Bonaparte, with the officers compoſing his ſtaff, ſpent the whole night in reconnoitering the ground, and examining the poſition of the enemy, who occupied a formidable line of 25,000 ſtrong; their right at Caprine, and their left at St. Marco. The Auſtrian General, who had arranged his plan of attack ſome days before expected neither the preſence of Bonaparte, nor the reinforcements which Joubert received, almoſt at the inſtant of attack. While ſuch were the diſpoſitions of the Generals, the night proved extremely unquiet to the out-poſts on both ſides, who, to prevent ſurpriſe, kept up almoſt a conſtant fire upon each other; and the reſumption of the poſt at St. Marco, produced a ſerious engagement. On the 14th of January at the break of day General Joubert with one part of his diviſion attacked the enemy upon the declivity of the hill of St. Marco. The other part occupied the centre; and the laſt was chiefly compoſed of the late reinforcements. The Auſtrian general ſtill remained ignorant, both of the preſence of the commander in chief, and of the arrival of the reinforcements. His plans were therefore diſconcerted,

and

and he acted in the dark. The battle, notwithstanding, was long and obstinate, and in its commencement the French were driven from some of their posts; while a fresh body of the Austrians advanced to the eminences between the Adige and the lake Guarda, turned the flank of the French, and completely cut off their communication with Verona and Peschiera. In this embarrassing situation, the General lost nothing of his usual presence of mind. He detached two battalions to face this new column, and caused four pieces of light artillery to be planted so as to cannonade the right of their line. In the mean time, a reinforcement under the command of General Rey, fortunately arrived, and took a position exactly in the rear of the column which had turned the French. Bonaparte now pressed the attack with the utmost vigour; and, in less than a quarter of an hour, the whole column, consisting of 4,000 men laid down their arms. The Austrians were now every where put to the route, and pursued by the conquerors during the whole of the night. The French general relates, that such was the panic with which the enemy was seized, that in the course of their flight, a body of 1,500 men surrendered as prisoners to a party of fifteen republicans.

Still the Austrians remained masters of Corona, but they were now disabled from acting on the offensive. Bonaparte, therefore, ordered General Joubert to attack them the next day, should they still be so imprudent as to retain possession of that place; while he himself hastened to encounter new difficulties, and to reap fresh laurels. A column of the enemy, consisting of 10,000 men, under General Provera had passed the Adige on the night of the 14th and obliged the French general Guyeax, who guarded the Adige on that quarter, to fall back from Ronco. He therefore, detached General Victor with a strong reinforcement to Roverbella, and ordered Massena also to take the same route, to stop, if possible, the March of the Austrians. General Joubert, in the mean time, faithfully adhered

to

to the inſtructions of the commander in chief; General Murat had marched the whole of the night of the 4th with a party of light infantry, and appeared in the morning on the heights of Montebello, which commanded Corona; while the Auſtrians who were poſted there were vigorouſly attacked in front by General Joubert. perceiving, therefore, their retreat cut off, they were, after ſome reſiſtance, thrown into the utmoſt confuſion; and almoſt the whole party were either drowned, in attempting to ſwim acroſs the Adige, or made priſoners.

In theſe engagements, termed by the French, the battle of Rivoli, the conquerors took 13,000 priſoners, and ninety-nine pieces of canon.

In the mean time, General Provera continued his march, at the head of 10,000 men, and forced the paſſage of Anguiari.

General Guyeux had rallied and united all the forces which were poſted in his vicinity, which only amounted to 1,500 men; and with a force ſo inadequate, he was unable to force the enemy to re-croſs the river; but he harraſſed and impeded their march for ſome time, and made nearly 300 priſoners. As Mantua was the object of General Provera, his advances were rapid; and General Angeveau, who had collected his forces with the deſign of falling on the column of Provera, between Anguiari and Roverquier, could only come up with the rear of his diviſion. After a warm conflict, however, he ſucceeded in cutting off the whole of the rear guard of the Auſtrian column, and took 2,000 priſoners, with ſixteen pieces of cannon. But ſtill General Provera preſſed forward with what remained of his column, which amounted to 6,000 men, and had the good fortune to arrive, on the 15th of January, at the ſuburbs of St. George, one of the poſts where Mantua was blockaded. At this poſt was ſtationed General Miolis, whoſe force was much inferior to that of the aſſailants; but he had his troops ſtrongly entrenched. He therefore received the ſummons of Provera with the reply,

reply, "that he would fight, but not ſurrender." Upon this the Auſtrian general attacked the poſt, but found the carrying of it impracticable. Provera, thus baffled in his deſign in this quarter, turned his attention to another poſt named La Favorita, and being ſeconded by a vigorous ſortie from the garriſon, as concerted between him and Wurmſer, he fully expected to force, and by that means to make good his entrance into Mantua. The deſign, however, did not eſcape the penetration of Bonaparte; and, to prevent the junction, he ſaw no other means than to ſurround the column of Provera, and force it to ſurrender. He had previouſly diſpatched General Serrurier to La Favorita, with all the forces that he could haſtily withdraw from the other poſts of the blockade; and he now ordered reinforcements from different diviſions of his army, who, by the moſt rapid movements that are recorded in hiſtory, arrived in time to effect their purpoſe.

An hour before day-break, on the morning of the 16th, the Auſtrians attacked La Favorita, and at the ſame moment General Wurmſer ordered a ſpirited ſortie from the garriſon, to ſupport the aſſailants, and divert the attention of the enemy. The detachment from the garriſon, however, met with ſo diſcouraging a reception from the column of General Victor, who commanded one of the detachments which had marched during the night, that it was compelled to return to the fortreſs without being able to effect a junction with Provera, after leaving the field covered with dead and priſoners. At the ſame moment Serrurier advanced to block up Provera between this poſt and St. George's. Terror and diſorder now pervaded the enemy's ranks, and the General ſolicited a capitulation. The priſoners who ſurrendered amounted to 6,000 infantry, and 700 cavalry, with twenty-two pieces of cannon. Thus periſhed the fifth grand army detached by Auſtria for the ſupport of its Italian territories, and to avert the deſtruction which now ſeemed to impend over the capital itſelf.

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The reſpective diviſions of the French army did not ſit down quietly to enjoy the fruits of their victories; on the contrary, they inceſſantly haraſſed the diſcomfited and ſcattered remains of the Auſtrian forces. The diviſion commanded by Maſſena repaired on the 23d to Vincenza, and from thence to Baſſano, in purſuit of the enemy, who had retreated to the other ſide of the defiles of the Brenta. A detachment from this diviſion, under General Menard, came up with them at Campenedolo, and, after a warm conteſt, made 800 priſoners. On the 27th, the diviſion of General Joubert alſo came up with the rearguard of the Auſtrians, and, after a ſlight ſkirmiſh, made 300 priſoners.

The Auſtrians after this retreated towards Mory, at Torbole. But here they were aſſailed afreſh by General Murat, who embarked with 200 men, and landed at the latter place; General Vial alſo, at the head of the light infantry, after a moſt ſevere march through the ſnows, and over the ſteepeſt mountains, turned their poſition, and obliged 450 to ſurrender. General Joubert about the ſame time entered Roveredo. The Auſtrians had entrenched themſelves deeply in the defiles of Caliano, and ſeemed diſpoſed to diſpute the entrance of the republicans into Trent; but, preſſed by the Generals Beliard and Vial, they were compelled to yield with the loſs of 300 priſoners. Trent ſubmitted to the republicans with little or no reſiſtance; and, in purſuing the flying enemy, the French made, at St. Michael, 800 priſoners.

The Auſtrian army being thus totally defeated, all Europe conſidered the fall of Mantua as inevitable. Nor was the conjecture ill-founded, as that capital of Italy ſurrended, on capitulation, the 2d of February. A brave enemy always grants honourable terms to a valiant and courageous rival; and General Wurmſer, whoſe valour and good conduct excited the eſteem and admiration of the French, obtained from their commander in chief the moſt honourable terms, which himſelf and his brave garriſon juſtly merited. The garriſon

were priſoners, but marched out with military honours; and the brave veteran Marſhal Wurmſer himſelf, and his ſuite, were excepted from the humiliating condition of appearing as priſoners of war. This experienced officer was at this period upwards of ſeventy years of age *. Famine, and ſtraits for proviſions had ſo preſſed the

* The celebrated Marſhal Dagobert Siegmund de Wurmſer died at Vienna in 1797, in the 73d year of his age: he was born at Straſburg in 1724, and entered at the age of fifteen, into the French ſervice, as cadet of artillery, which corps he ſoon abandoned for that of the cavalry; and, in 1740, was appointed cornet in the regiment of light-horſe raiſed by the celebrated Marſhal Saxe. He ſoon attracted notice as a bold rider, and for his peculiar manner in the conduct of the light cavalry. In the ſame year, he was advanced to the rank of Major in the regiment, in conſequence of his brave conduct at the taking of Prague, and of the judicious manner in which he covered the retreat of the French from Bohemia, under Marſhal de Belliſles. He was afterwards oppoſed to the celebrated Pandour, commander Trenck, who laid waſte Bavaria; Wurmſer, however, ſoon ſtopped his progreſs. In 1745, he exchanged the French ſervice for the Auſtrian, and was made Colonel of the ſame regiment of huſſars which he commanded afterwards as General. During the war of 1745 and 1756, Betwixt Auſtria and Frederick of Pruſſia, he had always commands in the line of battle, diſtinguiſhing himſelf for his bravery and judicious manœvres. He never had an opportunity to ſignalize himſelf as a General, till the new Pruſſian war in 1779, when he was entruſted with a ſeparate command. The maſterly manner in which he planned the attack of the Pruſſian rear, in the retreat from Bohemia in that year, and the attempts which he made to intercept the whole train of artillery, procured him the higheſt applauſe among military men, and even Frederick himſelf acknowledged it to be a firſt-rate piece of generalſhip. It was the Prince Royal of Pruſſia, now Frederick William II. who defeated thoſe ſchemes of Wurmſer. The Prince had his own regiment, the 2d regiment of foot-guards, Tunas's battalion of grenadiers, and Appenburg's dragoons, to cover a file of artillery and waggons, of more than twelve Engliſh miles in length. His cavalry was in the laſt diviſion, more than five miles backward, when Wurmſer, by a forced march, whereby he eſcaped the vigilance of the King himſelf, who commanded the covering column, appeared, at three o'clock in the afternoon, with 8,000 Hungarian cavalry, in front and flank of the Pruſſians, and in poſſeſſion of the heights and hollow grounds of Burkerſdorf, where the train was to paſs. The Prince perceiving that every thing was loſt if he waited

the reſolute General and his garriſon, that it was aſſerted that 5,000 horſes had been devoured by them in the courſe of the ſiege. This ſeems to be verified by the French,

waited for Wurmſer's attack, and his own cavalry being too far behind to be brought into the action took the bold reſolution to charge the Auſtrians. Accordingly, he put himſelf at the head of the foot-guards, and, ſupported by Tunas's grenadiers, and a heavy cannonade, attacked the Auſtrian cavalry with the bayonet, threw them into confuſion, and gave time to the King to come up, who ſoon being on the ſpot, took 900 priſoners, although Wurmſer renewed the attack. He had three horſes ſhot under him in that affair. Frederick, after the the action, declared, "*It was the firſt campaign of my nephew; I always thought him a courageous man, but now he has ſhown himſelf a judicious General, and has acquired more glory from the character of the great General who oppoſed him.*" In 1788, Wurmſer commanded a ſeparate corps in the Bannat, where he diſplayed his talents in oppoſing and ſtopping, by ſkilful marches and countermarches united with bold attacks of light-cavalry, the progreſs of the whole force of the Turkiſh empire, headed by the Grand Vizir. In 1789, he covered the whole of the Auſtrian army in the unfortunate retreat from the Bannat, and with his own and Barco's regiment, prevented more than 20,000 Turks from ſeizing the military cheſt and baggage In 1790, he left that army when Laudohn took the command, with whom he was not on terms of friendſhip. In 1793, he was appointed to the command of the army intended to act againſt the French in Alſace. On the 13th of October, he made a grand attack upon the lines of Lauter, and forced them, after little reſiſtance, from the enemy, who loſt almoſt the whole of their artillery. Weiſſemburg fell ſoon after, and he purſued the French, firſt to Haguenau, and then to Wanzenau, near Straſburg. On the 27th, he was, in this place, attacked by the French; but he compelled them to retreat with the loſs of 3,000 men. The famous Fort Louis, in Vauban, fell into his hands, on the 14th of November. Here is ſucceſſes terminated, and his genius was compelled to yield to the enthuſiaſm of the republicans, under the command of Pichegru and Hoche. On the 8th of December, his army was driven from Haguenau, with immenſe loſs; on the 26th, from Weiſſembourg, and finally acroſs the Rhine. The laſt ſervice in which Marſhal Wurmſer was employed, was to attempt the relief of Mantua, when beſieged by Bonaparte. As this event has been detailed in the body of our hiſtory, it is unneceſſary to repeat it here. The tactics of Wurmſer proved of little avail againſt that phænomenon of military genius, Bonaparte; and, after ſeveral days of hard fighting, he was compelled to throw himſelf and the wreck of his army into Mantua. The brave defence

French, who, on taking poſſeſſion of the city, ſcarcely found a living horſe within the walls.

The Holy See had, by their prevarications and duplicity, provoked the reſentment of the victorious French commander; and, indeed, the court of Rome could not be expected to be partial to the French intereſts; but it had adopted a timid and wavering plan of policy, correſponding with its own weakneſs and hoſtility to the French. Confident in theſe latter and deſperate efforts of the Auſtrians, the Pope, it is aſſerted, had even the imprudence of ſending part of his feeble force into the field to join General Alvinzi, and ſtrained every nerve to expel the Gallic invaders, while religious anathemas were liberally denounced againſt theſe impious infidels. The diviſion of General Victor was therefore ordered to penetrate to Rome, previous to the ſurrender of Mantua; and the capitulation was ſcarcely ſigned before Bonaparte ſet off in perſon to ſuperintend the operations of this army. The invaders ſlept at Imola, the firſt town within the papal dominions, on the firſt of February. The reſiſtance of the troops of the Pope was feeble, and were eaſily everpowered, with little or no loſs on the part of the French. After reſting a few days, the republican troops marched to Loretto, and took poſſeſſion of the Sancta Caſa, containing the famous Madona, or, our Lady of Loretto. But although this holy houſe (as it was termed), and the ſacred image had been adorned with the richeſt donations of jewels, ſums of gold, &c. &c. by almoſt every potentate and rich devotee in Chriſtendom, yet the provident clergy, the guardians of this ſacred treaſure, had been wiſe enough to ſecret or carry off almoſt the whole, while they left to the infidels only a wooden image, ſtripped of all its rich and coſtly ornaments. But, however, they found what was more acceptable than

fence which he made in that city, renders its ſiege one of the moſt important in modern hiſtory—the victor Bonaparte paid a tribute to his military character, ſuch as few men have received or deſerved from an enemy.

than the Madona, a depoſit of about 3,000,000 of livres. The whole Marche of Ancona ſubmitted with very little ſhew of reſiſtance; and on the 19th Bonaparte fixed his head-quarters at Tolentino. His holineſs, now reduced to the loweſt extremity, and the inauſpicious fortune of war having deprived him of his allies, addreſſed a ſubmiſſive epiſtle to the victorious General, in which he earneſtly ſolicited an amicable termination of the conteſt, and diſpatched two confidential eccleſiaſtics with full powers to conclude a treaty; as the baſis of which his holineſs was obliged to renounce all connection with the famous coalition of crowned heads; engaged to diſband the troops which he had raiſed for the ſupport of the war; and to ſhut his ports againſt all the powers at war with the republic. He agreed, without reſerve, to the annexation of Avignon and the county of Venaiſſin to the French, and alſo transferred to the republic the legations of Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna. In concluſion, he conſented to pay to the conquerors the ſum of 30,000,000 of livres, (1,500,000l.) 20,000,000 in ſpecie, and the reſt in diamonds and other valuables, with 16,000 horſes, as the ranſom of that remnant of his dominions, of which he was ſtill permitted to enjoy the precarious poſſeſſion.

It is not improbable, however, that the terms, hard as they were, would have been ſtill more ſevere, had not the French general's attention been afreſh called to another quarter; and to the exertions of Auſtria in making freſh preparations, the Pope was probably indebted for the reprieve which was granted him on this occaſion: for, while the French commander was advancing towards Rome, the Emperor, by exertions almoſt incredible, was reinforcing his diſcomfited army, or rather the remnants of it, and the command was given to the Archduke Charles, whoſe victorious career on the Rhine had inſpired the court of Vienna with the fondeſt hopes of his ſucceſs, even when oppoſed to ſo conſummate a maſter in the military art as Bonaparte.

In the beginning of March, the French army occupied the banks of Piave and Lavis; and that of the Emperor, under the command of the Archduke, the oppoſite ſide of the Piave, with its centre behind the Cordevoli, and ſupported on its right by the Adige from the ſide of Salurne. On the approach of Maſſena, on the 10th of March, however, the Auſtrians thought proper to evacuate the line of Cordevoli, and to march to Bellurne. On the 12th the diviſion of General Serrurier croſſed the Piave at day-break, and the Auſtrians immediately evacuated their camp of La Campagna. On the ſame day, General Guyeux paſſed the Piave at Oſpedaletto; on the 13th he fell in with the rear-guard of the enemy, and, after a ſlight conteſt, took 100 priſoners. The diviſion of Maſſena, in the mean time, having arrived at Bellurne, purſued the Auſtrians on their retreat towards Cadore, completely hemmed in their rear-guard, and took 700 priſoners, among whom was General Luſignau, who commanded the centre diviſion.

General Guyeux, with his diviſion, proceeded, on the 16th, from Pordenove, that of General Bernadotte from Sacile, and that of General Serrurier from Paſiano, all of them directing their march towards Valvaſone. Their forces arrived on the banks of Tagliamento at eleven o'clock the ſame day. The Auſtrians were poſted on the oppoſite ſide, and ſeemed determined to diſpute the paſſage. After ſome time ſpent in the neceſſary preparations, the republican troops plunged into the river, and completely routed the enemy, after a feeble reſiſtance, chiefly from the Auſtrian cavalry. The village of Gradiſka was immediately attacked by General Guyeux, and carried, notwithſtanding the lateneſs of the hour, and the darkneſs of the night—the Archduke Charles had ſcarcely time to effect his eſcape. In the whole of the day's engagement, the Auſtrians loſt from four to five hundred priſoners, among whom was one General, and ſeveral ſuperior officers, with ſix pieces of cannon.

The

The energy and activity of Bonaparte left no time to his princely antagoniſt to rally and collect his forces; but, on the 18th, a part of the French army took poſſeſion of Palmanova, while General Maſſena advanced to Oſopa and Gemona, and puſhed his advanced guards into the defiles.

General Serrurier, on the 19th, blockaded the town of Gradiſka, which was taken on the 20th, with 5,000 priſoners, the very flower of the Archduke's army.

Maſſena, in the mean time, with his diviſion advanced to the bridge of Caſaſola, drove the enemy from their intrenchments by the bayonet, and took 600 priſoners. On the 21ſt the French entered Goritz, where they found four hoſpitals, containing 1,500 ſick and wounded, with the whole magazines of the enemy, which Prince Charles had not time to remove. On the 23d, General Guyeux encountered the Auſtrians, who were ſtrongly entrenched at Puſero, defeated them, and took 100 priſoners, and two pieces of cannon. On the ſame day another diviſion entered Trieſte.

General Maſſena ſtill purſued his route and arrived at Tarvis, where a ſtrong column of the enemy was hemmed in between his forces and thoſe of General Guyeux. But on the following day, the Auſtrians, having received conſiderable reinforcements from Clagenfurt, the head-quarters of Prince Charles, were encouraged to hazard an engagement, and attacked Maſſena. After a ſevere battle, (which as the French commander ſtates, was fought above the clouds, on a height that commands Germany) the Auſtrians were again defeated with conſiderable loſs: three of their general officers, and a number of their men were taken priſoners, and the Emperor's curaſſiers, who had juſt arrived from the Rhine, were almoſt annihilated.

With equal ſucceſs General Guyeux drove the column which he had defeated at Puſero as far as Auſtrian Chinſe, a poſt well fortified, but which was carried by aſſault, after an obſtinate engagement. The Auſtrian column, perceiving the Chinſe taken, precipitated

rated its march, and fell into the middle of Maſſena's diviſion, who, after a ſlight conteſt, made the whole of them priſoners. The victors took thirty pieces of cannon, 400 waggons loaded with the enemy's baggage, and 5,000 priſoners, among whom were four Generals, by the event of this ſucceſsful day.

Uninterrupted ſucceſs thus attended the operations of the main army, the left wing, or the diviſions of the Tyrol, as thoſe of Joubert, Beraguey, D'Hilliers, and Delmas, were termed, were advancing from the Adige, the Lavis, and the Brenta, in order to form a junction with the commander in chief. In their march they ſurrounded a corps of the enemy on the banks of the Lavis, and after an obſtinate conteſt, took 4,000 priſoners, and three pieces of cannon, leaving 2,000 Auſtrians dead in the field. The Auſtrians under General Laudon, after this, retired to the right bank of the Adige, where they were again attacked, and defeated afreſh, on the 22d of March, by General Joubert, who took 600 priſoners. The army of the Tyrol then entered Botzen; but Joubert did not reſt there; and, after leaving a ſufficient force to purſue the flying army, under Laudon, he marched direct to Clauzen. The enemy availed themſelves of the poſition, and put themſelves in the beſt ſtate of defence. The action was obſtinate, and for ſome time doubtful, but victory again declared in favour of the French, and 1,500 Auſtrians laid down their arms as priſoners of war. Joubert immediately took poſſeſſion of Brixen.

Like Cæſar of old, Bonaparte never thought any thing completely done, while any part of it remained undone; and of conſequence, ſcarcely allowed his troops a moments reſt, but purſued the flying enemy without intermiſſion; and to the rapidity of his movements a large ſhare of his ſucceſs may fairly be attributed.

After the battles of Tarvis and La Chinſe, three diviſions of his army paſſed the defiles which lead from the Venetian ſtates into Germany, encamped at Wilbach,

bach, on the banks of the Drave. On the 29th of March, General Maſſena advanced upon Clagenfurt, which had been the head-quarters of Prince Charles. He encountered the enemy at about a league from the place; but they were too much diſcouraged to make a formidable reſiſtance: after loſing 200 priſoners, and two pieces of cannon, they abandoned Clagenfurt, the capital of Carinthia, which the French entered the ſame evening. Thus the Auſtrians were already, in the courſe of this ſhort campaign, driven from the Venetian ſtates, from the higher and lower Carniola, from Carinthia, and from the whole of the Tyroleſe; with the loſs of 20,000 men as priſoners of war, independent of thoſe taken before Prince Charles aſſumed the command.

In the midſt of this career of victory, Bonaparte, ſtill deſirous of giving and obtaining the bleſſing of peace, addreſſed a letter containing overtures of peace, to his brave, but unſucceſsful rival in arms. If we except an unjuſt reflection on the Engliſh nation, which it contains, it is certainly not leſs conſpicuous for its elevation of ſentiment, and dignity of compoſition, than for the polite, and even modeſt terms in which it is couched. Whatever may be the real character of the writer, the letter deſerves to be tranſmitted to poſterity, and we flatter ourſelves that our readers will be gratified by its inſertion—a copy of which they will find in the note below *.

To

* "The General in Chief of the army of Italy, to his Royal Highneſs M. Prince Charles.

"*11th Germinal, 5th year of the republic, (March 31ſt).*

"M. General in Chief,

"Brave ſoldiers make war, and deſire peace. Has not the war laſted ſix years? Have we not killed men and committed evils enough againſt ſuffering humanity? Such are the exclamations uſed on all ſides. Europe, who had taken up arms againſt the French republic, has laid them down. Your nation alone remains, and yet blood is about to flow more than ever. The ſixth cam-

To this beautiful and humane communication, the Prince returned a polite anſwer,—the ſubſtance of which was, that he neither conceived it his part to enter into any diſcuſſion on the principles upon which the war was carried on, nor was he furniſhed by the Emperor with any powers to conclude a treaty of peace.

In the reſources for continuing the war, the Auſtrian cabinet imagined that there was ſtill one left untried, and which was ſo ſucceſsfully employed under the reign of terror by Robeſpierre; and that was, an endeavour to excite the people to riſe in a maſs, and ſo to expel the invaders. This was attempted, and it was ſo far ſucceſsful, that the diviſions of General Laudon and Baron Kerpen were ſtrengthened by ſome freſh and undiſciplined,

paign is announced under the moſt portentous auſpices. Whatever may be the reſult, many thouſands of gallant ſoldiers muſt ſtill fall a ſacrifice in the proſecution of hoſtilities. At ſome period we muſt come to an underſtanding, ſince time will bring all things to a concluſion, and extinguiſh the moſt inveterate reſentment.

"The executive directory of the French republic communicated to his imperial Majeſty their inclination to terminate a conflict which deſolates the two countries. Their pacific overtures were defeated by the intervention of the Britiſh cabinet. Is there no hope then of accommodation? Is it eſſential to the intereſts, or gratifying to the paſſions of a nation, far removed from the theatre of war, that we ſhould continue to murder each other? Are not you, who are ſo nearly allied to the throne, and who are above all the deſpicable paſſions which generally influence miniſters and governments, ambitious to merit the appellations of 'the Benefactor of the human race, and the Saviour of the German empire?' Do not imagine, my dear General, that I wiſh to inſinuate, that you cannot ſave your country by force of arms; but on the ſuppoſition that the chances of war were even to become favourable, Germany will not ſuffer leſs on that account. With reſpect to myſelf, gallant General, if the overture which I have now the honour to make you, could be *the means of ſparing the life of a ſingle man*, (a truly noble ſentiment!) I ſhould plume myſelf on the civic crown, to which my interference would entitle me, more than of the melancholy glory which would reſult from the moſt brilliant military exploits. I beg of you to believe me to be, General in chief, with ſentiments of the moſt profound reſpect and eſteem, &c. &c.

"BONAPARTE."

CHARLES ARCH DUKE of AUSTRIA.

Engrav'd for the Hist.ry of the War Publ.d by K.Anderson.

diſciplined, but ſeaſonable, levies. The French columns under General Joubert were weak, and had ſuffered conſiderably by diſeaſe, and the frequent combats in which they had been engaged. In the begining of April, therefore, the fortune of war in that quarter began to change. On the 4th the French were driven from Botzen, by General Laudon, with ſome loſs, and on the following day from Brixen, where the two Auſtrian columns, under Laudon and Kerpen, effected a junction.

Theſe trifling misfortunes were far from daunting the mind of the magnanimous Bonaparte, who ſtill advanced by rapid marches. General Maſſena, with the advanced guard, attacked the Auſtrians, on the 2d of April, in the defiles, between Freiſach and Neumark, and, after a bloody engagement, the imperialiſts were completely routed, leaving the field of battle covered with the dead, and about 600 priſoners.—The following morning the French entered Neumark.

On the 4th the head quarters of the French general were at Sceiſling, and the advanced guard reached to Hunſmark, where the Auſtrians were again defeated, with the loſs of 900 men killed, wounded, and priſoners.

Italy has juſt been preſenting to our view ſcenes of carnage and deſolation, by the hoſtile armies of Germany and of France; nor is the eye of humanity relieved by being turned to the more northerly regions of Europe, and particularly to the banks of the Rhine, ſo often ſtained with human blood.

The command of the army of the Sambre and Meuſe had devolved on General Hoche, a young and enterprizing officer, who had been ſucceſsful in happily terminating the deſtructive civil war in La Vendee. General Moreau was continued as commander of the army of the Rhine and Moſelle. In the beginning of April, General Hoche gave notice to the enemy of the concluſion of the armiſtice, and ſoon after croſſed the Rhine by the bridge of Neuwied. After an ineffectual attempt

attempt, on the part of the Auſtrian general, Kray, to lengthen out the armiſtice, a ſmart action commenced on the 18th of April, in which the French were victorious, and the Auſtrians loſt, according to report made by General Hoche, 4,000 priſoners.

Following up their blow, the French purſued the flying enemy, and diſlodged them from Ukareth and Altenkirchen, while a diviſion, under General Ney, by rapid marches arrived at Dierdorf. He there found the Auſtrians 6,000 ſtrong, but he drove them from their poſition, with the loſs of 1,000 men, in killed, wounded, and priſoners.

Mean time, General Moreau croſſed the Rhine, and ſome ſlight engagements took place between the outpoſts; but the further proſecution of hoſtilities was, for the ſake of humanity, happily prevented. With our uſual brevity, we ſhall give the outlines of this unexpected and pleaſing event.

We requeſt our readers to recollect, that the anſwer of Prince Charles to Bonaparte's polite letter, did not augur the moſt favourably for peace; yet the explicit overture of the French commander in chief was not without its effect. A very ſhort time after the Prince had diſpatched his letter, he ſent an aid-de-camp to the French general, to requeſt a ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities for four hours.—Bonaparte ſuſpecting that the deſign of the Prince was, during that time, to effect a junction with General Spork, who was rapidly advancing with a freſh reinforcement, he therefore, found it improper to conſent to the propoſed armiſtice. A correſpondence, however, was immediately commenced between the two Generals, which ended at firſt in an armiſtice, and finally in adjuſting preliminaries of peace between the court of Vienna and the French republic; which were ſigned on the 18th of April, by Bonaparte, on the part of the French republic, and by the Neapolitan miniſter on the part of the Emperor. Among other articles, the preliminaries contained a direct ceſſion of the Netherlands to France, with the duchy of Luxemburgh, &c.—the independence

independence of the new Italian republics, and the navigation of the Rhine. By a secret article, it is believed the French undertook to indemnify the Emperor, by a part of the Venetian territory, and by the secularization of some of the ecclesiastical states in Germany.

To give energy, and to encourage every department in the French government, a general view of the successes of the war was printed about this period, and distributed among the members of the two councils at Paris.—From this statement it appeared, that from the 8th of September 1793, to the 19th of February 1797, the republic had gained Two Hundred and Sixty One Victories, including thirty-one pitched battles; killed 152,600 men of the enemy, taken 197,784 prisoners; 238 strong places; 319 forts, camps, or redoubts; 7,903 pieces of cannon; 186,762, guns, 4,388,150 pounds of gunpowder; 207 standards; 5,486 horses, mules, &c. &c.

But, however we may be ready to be dazzled with the splendor of the victories of the French republic, and astonished at their successes, unequalled in history; yet we are not to be blind to their aggressions upon justice and equity. The transactions which we now shortly relate, redound but little to the credit of the French government. They were the commencement of a system of rapine, and assault upon neutral, but unprotected states, which they have carried on to a shameful height, to this very year, (1802).

It must be owned, that the nominal republic of Venice was no other than an execrable system of Aristocratic tyranny, vested in the hands of several powerful families, and supported by a complex and mysterious organization of the executive power, a fact very generally acknowledged—that the government of Venice might view with a jealous and timid eye the rapid advances of the French from Italy, may be easily supposed; that they would have rejoiced in the expulsion of their armies out of Italy, is equally credible; yet,

yet, theſe are not motives to juſtify the violent meaſures of that government; the ſeizure of territories, the diſſolution of the political exiſtence a neutral independent ſtate. Yet even for this violation of the rights of nations, the French found, or made a pretext.

The charge which was brought by the French general againſt the Venetian government was, that while the French army was engaged in the defiles of Stiria, the government of Venice embraced the opportunity to arm 40.000 peaſants, uniting them with ten regiments of Sclavonians, to cut off the main body from the places which were occupied by the rear,—that, through the whole of the Terra Firma, a perſecution was inſtituted againſt all thoſe perſons by whom the French had been favourably received,—that in the ſquares, coffee-houſes, and other public places in Venice, the French had been inſulted. In fine, that aſſaſſinations of Frenchmen had been committed with impunity in different parts; that at Caſtiglione de Mori the French ſoldiers were firſt diſarmed and then murdered; on the great roads from Caſſino to Verona more than 200 were put to death; and on the ſecond feſtival at Eaſter, the ringing of the bell was the ſignal for aſſaſſinating all the French in Verona, without excepting even the ſick and wounded in the hoſpitals.

To theſe ſerious charges, the Venetians, by way of recrimination, replied by inſtancing the wanton ſeizure of part of their territory, the quartering of troops on ſome of the principal towns, under pretence that theſe places were neceſſary to the operations of the French army againſt the imperialiſts. They admit that freſh levies were made in the Venetian territories; but theſe, they alledge, were neceſſary to their own ſecurity, placed among contending armies, and ſurrounded with conſpirators. That ſome intemperate acts were committed, they pretend not to deny; but ſo far from countenancing theſe, the government wiſhed, on the contrary, to inſtitute a ſevere enquiry, and puniſh the aggreſſors.

On

On the 9th of April, the French commander in chief addreſſed a manifeſto to the Doge of Venice, complaining of the hoſtile diſpoſition which that government had uniformly manifeſted towards the French, and demanding inſtant ſatisfaction for the recent injuries. The ſenate replied immediately to Bonaparte, that they had ever wiſhed to maintain a good underſtanding with the French republic; and aſſured him further, that they would take the moſt efficacious meaſures to diſcover and arreſt the authors of the aſſaſſinations committed on individuals of the French army.

On the firſt of May, Bonaparte iſſued a ſecond proclamation, in which he entered more particularly into the detail of the enormities which had been committed; and ſeemed to intimate, that the puniſhment of the aſſaſſins would not be ſufficient to appeaſe the reſentment, and ſatiate the vengeance of the French. Under theſe circumſtances, a negociation was commenced; commiſſaries were diſpatched to wait on the conqueror of Italy at Milan; and, about the 15th of May, a treaty was concluded—the terms of which were, the ceſſion of the whole Terra Firma to the French, a part of which to be reſtored when the ſyſtem of Italy ſhould be eſtabliſhed; the fort of Venice to be occupied by the French troops; the ſtate of Venice to pay 80,000,000 of livres; (four millions ſterling) and laſtly, the government of Venice to be changed.

This laſt article was almoſt immediately put in execution. The ſenate, and council of ten were aboliſhed; and the three ſtate inquiſitors put under arreſt. A proviſional adminiſtration was appointed; and a municipality of fifty members was choſen, under the preſidency of ſix commiſſaries, appointed by the French general. To complete the humiliation of the once haughty republic of Venice, their territory was filled with French troops, and the only article they took care to fulfil, was the levying of the contributions. In a word, on the final adjuſtment of the definitive treaty with

with the Emperor, which, after much delay, was concluded at Udina, on the 17th of October, it was found, that Venice was to be the ſacrifice to peace, and the whole of the territories of that ancient and renowned ſtate was ceded by a republic (which profeſſedly was in arms for the cauſe of liberty) to the deſpotic yoke of Auſtria.

Impartiality, and a ſacred reverence for truth, oblige us to notice, and reprehend theſe exceſſes of the French —for the friend of liberty looks to no party as the guide of his opinions. When the naſcent liberties of France were attacked by a combination of deſpotic powers on the continent, every friend of liberty deprecated what was eſteemed a moſt unjuſtifiable aggreſſion. —When France in her turn becomes an oppreſſor, the voice of truth and juſtice proclaim her infamy, nor can we ourſelves with-hold our cenſure and diſapprobation.

At this period, the republic of Genoa felt the predominant intereſt of the French; and its government, which was a mild ariſtocracy, where the great were content with having all the political power, without oppreſſing their fellow-citizens, was changed for that of a repreſentative government.

In the beginning of May, a formidable inſurrection took place in that city, excited by a club of Propagandiſts, who commonly aſſembled at the houſe of an apothecary. The inſurgents inveſted Philip Doria with the authority of chief, and the government, which had but little dependence on its feeble force, appeared to loiter. The leſſer council, in this extremity, prevailed upon the workmen to join the ſoldiers; a deſperate engagement enſued, in which victory declared itſelf on the ſide of government: of the inſurgents many were killed, among whom was their leader, Doria, and ſeveral Frenchmen.

In the mean time, the vanquiſhed party diſpatched couriers to General Bonaparte, to ſolicit his aſſiſtance; and, under the plea of reſtoring peace, a column of French

French troops entered Genoa; the conſequence was the removal of all the conſtituted authorities, and the adoption of the democratic form of government, under the protection of France, and under the title of the Ligurian government.

In the mean time, the factions that now prevailed in France, ſeemed to convulſe, and even overthrow the very exiſtence of the republic. But with their debates and changes which took place in their adminiſtration of affairs, we will not trouble our readers; but refer ſuch as wiſh to be gratified with ample details of thoſe tranſactions, to the political journals and other publications of thoſe times.

It is probable that the unexpected victories and extenſive conqueſts of the French on the continent; the addreſs they diſcovered in detaching one power after another from the coalition, influenced the Britiſh government, once more, to ſound the diſpoſition of that people reſpecting their ſentiments about a general pacification. This was almoſt daily the ſubject of declamation by the oppoſition in parliament, and the cry was, "Why do you not attempt ſomething towards a peace?"—Well; it was attempted once more, but with what ſincerity, we will not preſume to decide.

The event of the 4th of September, probably, (as we obſerved before) contributed to the abrupt termination of the negociation at Liſle for the happy and deſirable purpoſe of reſtoring peace between the two nations. In the courſe of the month of June, a propoſal having been made, on the part of Lord Grenville, to the French miniſter for foreign affairs, for commencing a freſh negociation, a paſſport was granted for a miniſter furniſhed with full powers to negociate a definitive and ſeparate treaty of peace, and Liſle was appointed as the ſcene of the negociation. In the beginning of July, Lord Malmeſbury, the Britiſh plenipotentiary, arrived at Liſle; and, after having exchanged his powers with the French plenipotentiaries, Letourneur, Pleville, Pellay, and Maret, had his firſt conference of buſineſs

on the 8th of the ſame month. In this conference, Lord Malmeſbury delivered in his project as the baſis of the negociation—the leading articles of which were, that the principle of the ſtate of poſſeſſion before the war ſhould be reciprocally adopted as the baſis; and all conqueſts reſtored, unleſs ſuch as ſhould be excepted by the preſent treaty; and that all the conqueſts from the French republic, by the Britiſh, ſhould be relinquiſhed, and only Trinidad be retained, as conquered from Spain; and Ceylon and the Cape of Good Hope from Holland; a reſtoration of the effects of the Stadtholder, was alſo required, or an equivalent, with a compenſation for the loſs of his hereditary dignities.

As the project of Lord Malmeſbury contained ſome particulars, concerning which the French plenipotentiaries ſaid, their inſtructions did not fully enable them to conclude, they ſent them, with their obſervations, to the directory; and, in the mean time, propoſed to his Lordſhip to enter into ſome explanation concerning certain other points, the diſcuſſion of which might tend to facilitate and haſten the important buſineſs. On aſſenting to this propoſal, the French negociators objected, in the firſt place, to the title of King of France, as uſed by his Britannic Majeſty, the abolition of which, they aſſerted, was eſſential to the full acknowledgment of the republic. The ſecond ſubject on which they demanded ſatisfaction, was, as his Lordſhip juſtly remarks, of much greater importance; it was to aſk either a reſtitution of the ſhips taken at Toulon, or an equivalent for all which were either taken or deſtroyed in that port. They grounded their claim on the preliminary declarations of Lord Hood, on his taking poſſeſſion of Toulon, and on the eight article of the ſections to him. They ſaid that his Britannic Majeſty, in acknowledging the French republic, admitted that the ſovereignty exiſted in that government; and, of courſe, the ſhips held only as a depoſit by England, till this legal authority ſhould be acknowledged, ought to be reſtored. The third queſtion was, as to any mortgage

which

which Great Britain might have on the Low Countries, in conſequence of money advanced to the Emperor. If they had taken the Low Countries with *all* their incumbrances, there could be no doubt what theſe words meant, and that no exception was implied. As to the other queſtions, he ſaid, they went ſo far beyond his inſtructions, that he muſt make application to his court before he could proceed any further in the negociation.

In this ſtate the negociation continued till the 16th of July, when Lord Malmeſbury received a note from the French plenipotentiaries, informing him, that the French government, unable to detach itſelf from its treaties with its allies, required as a preliminary of negociation, the reſtitution of *all* his Britannic Majeſty's conqueſts. To this note Lord Malmeſbury replied, in a conference, after having received freſh inſtructions from his court—"That he was ſure peace on ſuch terms would not be heard of." His Lordſhip added every argument in his power to convince them of the unreaſonableneſs of the demand; but received for anſwer, that the inſtructions from the directory, on that point, were preciſe and poſitive; and therefore, before they proceeded, they muſt wait for further orders from the French government. A conſiderable delay now enſued; but, on the 12th of Auguſt, one of the French plenipotentiaries informed Lord Malmeſbury, in confidence, that the delay was occaſioned by the neceſſity of the French government conſulting with its allies. On the 28th of Auguſt, a freſh cauſe of delay occurred in the negociation; and the French miniſters then informed Lord Malmeſbury, that the anſwer from Holland was ſo unſatisfactory, that the directory had remitted it to the Dutch miniſters at Paris, who ſaid they could alter it.

After long diſcuſſion, Lord Malmeſbury received a note peremptorily aſking him whether his powers were ſufficient to reſtore every poſſeſſion taken from France or her allies, and on his anſwering in the negative, he received, on the following day, another note, requiring

him

him to return in twenty-four hours, to obtain the neceſſary qualifications from his own court: and thus ended this unfortunate negociation.

Having in the preceding pages, given a general view of the moſt important military and naval tranſactions, during the year 1797, we now enter upon a detail of the moſt ſtriking and intereſting, as they occurred in the ſubſequent year, 1798. And, in general, the leaſt attentive reader cannot fail to obſerve, that, from the commencement of the French revolution, every ſucceeding year has been replete with new and extraordinary incidents; the circle of civil anarchy has gradually extended; ſtate after ſtate has been ſwallowed up in the vortex; and a general ruin has ſeemed to impend over the face of Europe. The Britiſh empire, of all the adjacent ſtates, had alone enjoyed domeſtic tranquillity. This, however, during this period, ſeemed to ſuffer an interruption in one part of the empire; but after ſhedding much blood, it was at length reſtored.

Every friend of humanity muſt regret the abrupt termination of the negociation at Liſle. Between that time, and the meeting of the Britiſh parliament, a very ſhort period intervened. On the opening of the ſeſſion on the 2d of November 1797, the friends of liberty, and of the conſtitution could not fail to regret that the benches of oppoſition appeared almoſt completely deſerted. The memorable ſeceſſion, which had taken place towards the concluſion of the preceding ſeſſion, was ſtill religiouſly obſerved by the moſt diſtinguiſhed leaders of the whig party; and even the miniſters themſelves regretted, that by the retreat of Mr. Fox and his friends, the nation was deprived at this momentous criſis of that aſſiſtance which their brilliant talents might have afforded to their country. On this event, we will not dilate; but ſhall ſhortly obſerve, that in vindication of this dereliction of their parliamentary duty, they obſerved, that the violent ſtate of party politics rendered ſuch a meaſure indiſpenſable on the part of

of oppoſition. "In times when every man who cenſured the meaſures of adminiſtration, was regarded as in league with the enemy, for what end, they argued, ſhould we incur ſo black a calumny? If we declare our ſentiments we are proclaimed as the enemies of our King; if we tacitly acquieſce in the meaſures of the miniſter, we thereby voluntarily take upon us a ſhare of the reſponſibility. We have done our utmoſt to prevent the war; we have urged repeatedly the neceſſity of bringing it to a ſpeedy termination, we have not convinced our opponents—events muſt now take their natural courſe—we cannot aid with counſel, and it ſhall not be ſaid that we embarraſs with oppoſition."

The ſpeech from the throne alluded to a topic, which naturally engaged the attention of every man intereſted in the welfare of his country. "His Majeſty expreſſed his ſincere concern that his endeavours to reſtore peace, had been rendered ineffectual. The public declaration, and the papers laid before them, had fully proved that every ſtep had been taken on his part to accelerate its concluſion; and the long delay, and final rupture of the negociation, he added, were to be aſcribed ſolely to the evaſive conduct, inordinate ambition, and, above all, to the inveterate animoſity of the enemy againſt theſe kingdoms. He then goes on to aſſure his parliament, that by a firm reliance upon providence, the magnanimity and courage of his fleets and armies, numerous reſources ariſing from the extenſion of our commerce, &c. he hoped to bring the conteſt to a happy and honourable termination.

In the houſe of Lords, the Earl of Glaſgow moved the addreſs, and in a long harangue reprobated the duplicity, ambition and arrogance of the French government; he obſerved "that the aim of France was univerſal dominion, and whether they purſued it by war or by treaty, the object had never been varied.

"With profeſſions of juſtice, good faith, humanity, they had thought no action too atrocious to be committed;

ted; and, indulging their imaginations in ideal victory over this country, they already conſidered it as a conquered enemy, and would liſten to no terms but ſuch as they themſelves ſhould dictate. In the negociation, they had demanded, a previous unconditional reſtitution of every thing that had been taken either from themſelves, or their pretended allies. Had theſe haughty terms been acceded to, our diſhonour would have been ſealed, but peace would have been yet more diſtant. No negociator could have propoſed ſuch extravagant conditions but with a view of forcing a continuance of the war, &c."

Earl Fitzwilliam, in a ſpeech fraught with virulence and ſeverity of expreſſion, reprobated the French government and their inſolent propoſals—never had ſuch ſwarms of banditti iſſued, ſaid his Lordſhip, as had iſſued from the cultivated Empire of France, overſpread the ſurrounding kingdoms with madneſs and with guilt! and was this the nation with which England was ready to make engagements? with a long harangue of the bitterest invective, he was againſt entering into any negociation whatever, and voted for the addreſs.

In the houſe of Commons the arguments were nearly the ſame, and the addreſs was carried by a large majority. But as the parliamentary buſineſs (ſave only what reſpects the war,) does not immediately fall in with our hiſtory we will omit any detail of them.

The continued threats of invaſion, which had been held out by the enemy, ſeem to have excited the apprehenſions, and rouſed the attention of the Britiſh miniſtry, ſoon after the meeting of parliament; and on the 11th of January a meſſage was ſent by his Majeſty to each houſe, ſoliciting their attention to that important ſubject. It was, however, ſome time before a plan could be matured, to the ſatisfaction of miniſters, for the defence of the kingdom; and the neceſſity of agitating the ſubject in parliament deferred its execution, till the face of affairs in Europe began to aſſume a different appearance, and till the kingdom was in

part

part relieved from the alarms excited by the formidable preparations on the oppoſite ſide of the channel.

On the 8th of February Mr. Dundas moved for the introduction of a bill to enable his Majeſty to call out a certain portion of the ſupplementary militia, and incorporate them in the companies of the regular militia. The ſame miniſter, on the 27th of March, roſe, in purſuance of a notice given the preceding day, to move for leave to bring in a bill, to enable his Majeſty to take meaſures for the more effectual ſecurity and defence of theſe realms, and to indemnify perſons who might ſuffer injury in their property by the operation of ſuch meaſures. It was an affair of the greateſt importance, and he was aware that on a motion for a bill of ſo general a deſcription, gentlemen would aſk, "Whether we are not now in poſſeſſion of a navy, which would render futile every attempt of the enemy to invade our coaſts?" This he was ready to admit. But, notwithſtanding the ſplendor of our naval character, there exiſted circumſtances at that moment, which rendered it imprudent to reſt the defence of the country on one branch of its force. It might probably be aſked, "is not our army the greateſt we ever had? and can we not defend the country by means of the regular forces and the militia?" But notwithſtanding theſe guarantees, he would not altogether reſt on them our ſecurity and ſafety. We were now fighting for the deepeſt ſtake ever the country had at iſſue in any conteſt. He then ſtated what was the object of the bill he meant to propoſe; in truth, he ſaid, it had two or three objects of importance connected with it.—It was the object of this bill to provide for every poſſible emergency, by giving a power to his Majeſty to diſcover who were the perſons prepared to appear in arms, to embody for their own defence. Another proviſion of the bill was to ſee what number of the inhabitants of certain diſtricts would be able to act as pioneers, or in other laborious ſituations. He alſo remarked, that, in the criſis of real danger, ſome perſons might be influenced

enced by motives of perſonal ſafety, or the natural wiſh of preſerving their property, might lead them to withdraw from their country; the preſent bill, however, would provide, that, ſhould the property of individuals be deſtroyed by a marching army, or fall into the enemy's hands, or be taken for the ſervice of their country, indemnification ſhould be rendered according to its value, &c.

The bill, Mr. Dundas obſerved, was intended to give a power of embodying alſo a portion of the regular militia, and employing them in the defence of their country. The bill was accordingly brought in and paſſed.

At this period the fatal conteſt which had been long expected, and long feared, in Ireland, broke forth with all the horrors which naturally accompany ſuch an event. As theſe inſurrections and diſturbances roſe to an alarming height, we may be permitted to trace their origin and cauſes in as ſuccinct a manner as we can; and to throw ſome light upon this intricate ſubject, it will be neceſſary to carry our views back to the earlier periods of the Iriſh hiſtory; and to conſider the predifpoſing cauſes in a connected ſeries.

Upon the conqueſt of Ireland, by Henry II. a certain part of that kingdom was ceded to the Engliſh adventurers. This part was governed by Engliſh uſages; and an officer of the King of England preſided over its government, under the title of Lord Deputy, while the reſt of the country remained under its native Princes, and ſubject to its original laws.

Not content with the boundary which was firſt ſet them by treaty, the Engliſh ſettlers gradually extended their territories, by encroachments and conqueſts on their leſs warlike neighbours; but it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that the country could be ſaid to be completely ſubjected to the Engliſh yoke.

In courſe of theſe tranſactions many of the native Iriſh were diſpoſſeſſed of the inheritance of their anceſtors, they conſequently regarded the new ſettlers as intruders

intruders and plunderers; inſurrections, of conſequence, were frequent; and each inſurrection produced new forfeitures; and the cauſes of animoſity were multiplied in proportion to the efforts which were made for the recovery of their loſt rights.

At the celebrated period of the reformation, a new cauſe of diſunion was generated from that ſtrong attachment to their ancient religion, which forms a ſtriking feature in the character of the native Iriſh. The ſtorm, for exterminating theſe proteſtant intruders, which was gradually thickening, burſt out in an inſurrection, in 1641, written in characters of blood, and marked out for the horror and amazement of poſterity; and religion was not only a motive, but the avowed pretext of the inſurgents. Even the catholics of the pale, the deſcendants of the firſt Engliſh adventurers, took an active part in the inſurrection, and co-operated with the catholic powers on the continent for the utter deſtruction of the proteſtants. The leaders of the rebellion were publicly aſſiſted by money from the papal treaſury; and a legate from his holineſs preſided in the convention of the inſurgents in Kilkenny. Many were the forfeitures that took place upon the ſuppreſſion of this horrid rebellion. Many cauſes have co-operated to render the lower claſſes untractable and deſperate, and they have upon every occaſion, which ſeemed to promiſe ſucceſs, diſcovered an inclination to throw off what they called the Britiſh yoke. The peaſantry of Ireland are ignorant, ſavage, extremely poor, and candour obliges us to add, they are in ſome meaſure oppreſſed. The grazing ſyſtem, and the monopoly of farms, have precluded many families from a decent and independent ſubſiſtence, and reduced them to a precarious and dependent ſituation. The outrages of the Whiteboys in the year 1762, and for about ten years ſucceeding, have been attributed to this circumſtance. Many conceſſions, however, were made to the catholics in that country in the years 1782 and 1793. By that arrangement, catholics were inveſted with the

ſame privileges as his Majeſty's proteſtant ſubjects, except only the being eligible to the great offices in the ſtate, about thirty-two in number, and the right of ſitting and voting in both houſes of parliament.

In the year 1795, Earl Fitzwilliam was appointed to the government of Ireland; and he, according to his own ſtatement, went with full powers from the Britiſh miniſtry to ſatisfy all the claims of the Roman catholics; and it can never be ſufficiently regretted that the hopes of the catholics were elevated, only to experience the bitterneſs of diſappointment. To this the recall of that popular nobleman from his government of Ireland created much diſcontent in that country, and was at leaſt a dangerous circumſtance in the hands of the diſaffected party.

Thus were the minds of the Iriſh peaſantry prepared by ancient prejudice, and what they conſidered as recent injury, for a ſtate of inſubordination; and, in ſuch a ſtate of things, it was natural to expect that Ireland ſhould be in ſome degree affected by the momentous changes which were taking place on the continent of Europe.

A conſiderable faction had exiſted among them from the firſt dawn of the French revolution, ſecretly attached to republican principles, and who impatiently wiſhed for a participation of that equal liberty which they erroneouſly believed was to be the fruits of the conteſt in which the Gallic reformers were engaged. Beſides theſe, there were many ambitious and diſappointed men, who, in every country, are ever ready to join the ſtandard of revolt; and there was ſtill a larger body, who ſaw the defects of their conſtitution, which, they perſuaded themſelves, a little virtue and energy in the people would lead the government to reform. The catholics were ſtill the moſt numerous, and, on that account, the moſt powerful part of the nation: theſe it was neceſſary to conciliate; and the party contrived to implicate their own claims with thoſe

thoſe of a people who were to be their principal agents in effecting their deſigns.

A parliamentary reform, and what they choſe to term catholic emancipation, were the oſtenſible principles upon which the ſociety, ſince become ſo famous under the name of *United Iriſhmen*, was formed. It was inſtituted in the year 1791; and a code of laws for its regulation was drawn up by a man as much diſtinguiſhed by his talents, as by his unfortunate and premature death. This gentleman was but little indebted to the adventitious circumſtances of birth or fortune, for his celebrity or influence. He was the ſon of a tradeſman in Dublin; but was educated at Trinity-college, and brought up to the bar. From inclination, and probably from principle, he attached himſelf to the popular party, and was the leading perſon in the eſtabliſhment of the ſociety in queſtion. The conſtitution of this ſociety evinced much ability and political knowledge, and it certainly was well calculated to effect, not merely its oſtenſible objects, but even a ſeparation from the Britiſh connection; which, there is reaſon to think, was meditated by ſome of the leading members, latterly, at leaſt; though it is but juſt to acquit the great majority of the members of any treaſonable deſign in the firſt inſtitution of this ſociety. The firſt, and principal article expreſſed that the ſociety was conſtituted for the purpoſe of forwarding a brotherhood of affection, a community of rights, and an union of power, among Iriſhmen of every religious profeſſion; and thereby to obtain a complete reform in the legiſlature, founded on the principles of civil, political, and religious liberty. Each particular ſociety, or diviſion, was originally to conſiſt of thirty-ſix members, which number was afterwards reduced to twelve. Each of theſe elected their own treaſurer and ſecretary; and alſo appointed delegates to what was called the baronial committee.—— Many other articles, which we have no room to enumerate, were found in their code of regulations. They choſe ſo many members, whom they conſtituted a directory;

rectory; and this directory exercised an almost unlimited authority over the whole body of the union, though their names and persons were utterly unknown to the members, who gave implicit obedience to an invisible authority. An oath was administered to every new member, on his admission to the society, which pledged him to "persevere in endeavouring to form a brotherhood of affection among Irishmen of every religious persuasion; and also in the obtaining of a full and adequate representation of the people of Ireland." The oath further engaged him, that neither hopes, fears, rewards, or punishments, should ever induce, directly or indirectly, to inform, or give evidence against any member or members of that and similar societies.

This society, for two or three years after its institution, by its circumspection, escaped the vigilance, or by its insignificancy failed to excite the suspicions of government. Its organization was gradually perfected, and proselytes were daily gained to the cause.

In the mean time, the Irish government, now seriously alarmed, passed an act against the holding of seditious meetings, or conventions, for any political purpose, without the sanction of the magistrates. An act was also passed against administering the defender's oath, and many of these deluded people were, from time to time, apprehended, tried and convicted, at the different assizes for their respective counties. The United Irishmen appear to have had no immediate connection with the defenders; yet though it is alleged, they raised money to support and defend some of them upon their trials. About this time, a person of the name of Jackson, who had been a clergyman of the church of England, and was, previous to his going to France, connected with some of the daily papers in London, obtained, through some Irish or British emigrants in Paris, an introduction to the Jacobin party, which was then in power. He had no other recommendation but to a Mr. Stone, whose brother at that time resided in Paris, and was printer to the French convention. The object of

of the miſſion was, to form a connection with the diſaffected party in this kingdom, and to facilitate a plan of invaſion which ſeems to have been remotely meditated in that year, 1794. Thinking Ireland more inflammable and more ripe for revolt, went to that country; and was then introduced to Mr. Hamilton Rowan, at that time impriſoned in Newgate for ſeditious or treaſonable practices, and to Mr. Theobald Wolfe Tone, both of them perſons of high authority, in the ſociety of United Iriſhmen, and, indeed, men of influence in the country. Jackſon's motions were all watched, and in concluſion, he was apprehended, brought to trial in Dublin and convicted of high treaſon. The unfortunate man anticipated the ſentence of the law; and having, as is generally believed, taken poiſon, previouſly to his being called into court to receive ſentence, he ſuddenly, as his council began to argue an arreſt of judgment, ſunk down at the bar and expired. It is affirmed, in the report of the Iriſh Houſe of Lords, "that, on this occaſion, the ſtale pretext of parliamentary reform, and catholic emancipation, were found ineffectual for the ſeduction of the people of that province; and therefofe the emiſſaries of treaſon, who had undertaken it, in order to prevail with them to adopt the ſyſtem of organization, firſt repreſented that it was neceſſary in their own defence, as their proteſtant fellow ſubjects had entered into a ſolemn league and covenant to deſtroy them, having ſworn to wade up to the knees in popiſh blood.

Through the medium of Mr. Tone, and other Iriſh refugees, a regular communication was opened in the year 1795, between the French directory and the United Iriſhmen. In the latter end of that year, a meſſenger was diſpatched to France from the ſociety. Early, therefore, in the ſucceeding year, a propoſition was received that an army ſhould be ſent over to Ireland, to aſſiſt the projected effort to ſubvert the monarchy, and to ſeparate Ireland from the Britiſh connection. The propoſal was duly conſidered, and, after ſome deliberation, accepted

accepted by the ſociety; but to arrange the preliminaries for the invaſion, it was determined that ſome of the moſt eminent of the leaders of the republicans in Ireland, ſhould have an interview with a confidential agent on the part of France. With this view, in the courſe of the ſummer 1796, Lord Fitzgerald, and Mr. Arthur O'Conner proceeded to Switzerland.—Near the French frontier an interview took place between theſe gentlemen and General Hoche; and, in this converſation, it is believed, the whole plan of invaſion was finally adjuſted. We have already noticed the abortive expedition of General Hoche, in the winter of 1796, the effects of this conference, and the cauſe of its failure. The decided loyalty of the great maſs of the Iriſh nation, on that critical occaſion, is a circumſtance which has occaſioned ſurpriſe, and the inconſiderate folly of Lord Fitzgerald, O'Conner, and others, excites our aſtoniſhment. Having their imaginations heated with the frantic hopes of overturning the Britiſh conſtitution, and ſubſtituting in its room ſome ideal, utopian ſyſtem, they extended the deluſion to the French nation, by aſſuring Hoche, that no ſooner would the natives of Ireland ſee the three-coloured flag flying on the coaſt, while they themſelves raiſed the ſtandard of rebellion on the land, than thouſands of all deſcriptions would join them; and the work would be inſtantaneouſly achieved! The myſtery is, however, in ſome degree developed by the teſtimony of ſome of the members of the Iriſh directory. In the month of November, an expreſs was received, informing the Iriſh executive (as the five members of the directory were termed) that a deſcent was immediately to be made with 15,000 men; but in a few days after, a letter arrived, acquainting them that the expedition was deferred till the ſpring, when it was intimated that full employment would be found for the Britiſh forces by the invaſion of Great Britain itſelf, as well as the ſiſter kingdom. The people were therefore left wholly unprepared for the reception of the French, and unapprized of the meaſures which had been

been previouſly taken. It is even ſuppoſed that this letter was a forgery by ſome Britiſh agent in France, and ſo completely deceived all parties concerned in the intended invaſion.

The military ſyſtem, as the inſurgents called it, proceeded with vigour after the renewed communication with the French government in 1796. As the province of Ulſter had, in all former inſurrections, been the moſt forward in every preparation, the organization was firſt completed there; the other provinces were leſs forward, but Leinſter, was, we believe, the ſecond in readineſs. The mode of arming was communicated by an order from the executive, which enjoined that every member of the union, who had the means, ſhould provide himſelf with fire-arms; and, that thoſe who were unequal to this expence, ſhould provide themſelves with pikes. The military organization was founded on the civil arrangements. The ſecretary to each diviſion, or ſociety of twelve, was the petty officer under the title of ſerjeant or corporal; the delegate of five ſocieties to a lower baronial, was uſually a captain, and thus had ſixty men under his command. The delegates of ten lower baronials to the upper, or diſtinct committee, was uſually a colonel; and thus a battalion conſiſted, in general, of about 600 men. The ſtaff officers were appointed in the following manner; the colonels of each county ſent in the names of three perſons to the executive, one of whom was appointed by that body, adjutant-general in his county. His duty was to communicate all military orders from the executive. The commander in chief, and the ſuperior officers were, we believe, appointed by the ſupreme executive body alone.

In the month of March, 1796, the famous inſurrection act, empowering the magiſtrates in any county or diſtrict to proclaim it out of the King's peace, and conſequently to ſubject the inhabitants to military law, was paſſed. But this law did not operate till the month of November following. Various opinions have been entertained

entertained of the operation of this act: by the friends of adminiſtration, the ſalvation of the country is attributed to the vigour which it gave to the ſupporters of government; by their opponents it is alledged to have encreaſed the diſcontents it was intended to ſuppreſs; to have produced ſome horrid acts of injuſtice and oppreſſion, which naturally irritated the people, and added to the numbers of the diſaffected. It is poſſible that the truth may lie between theſe two extremes. Vigorous meaſures, when a conſpiracy ſo deeply laid, and of ſuch an extenſive nature, were undoubtedly proper; but a wiſe and virtuous government, is always cautious of the multiplication of penal ſtatutes; and the ultimate ſuppreſſion of the conſpiracy was not effected by the application of this law—it was brought about by more effectual means, by a diſcovery of the plot, and ſtriking at the root of the evil, by ſecuring the leaders.

But although Hoche had failed in his expedition, the members of the Iriſh union were not diſcouraged. The alliance with France, on the contrary, became more firmly connected. A regular communication and correſpondence was eſtabliſhed. Lewins was appointed as reſident miniſter of the Iriſh directory at Paris. He paſſed over, under the aſſumed name of Thompſon, from Ireland to Hamburgh. There he obtained letters of evidence from the French miniſter to General Hoche, whom he met at Frankfort, and afterwards proceeded to Paris, where he remained as the accredited miniſter of what they fondly termed "the Iriſh republic." In the year 1797, a ſpecial miniſter was ſent, in conſequence of an application from the French directory, in order to make the neceſſary arrangements for the invaſion. Dr. M'Nevin, who had acted as ſecretary to the Iriſh executive, was appointed to this ſervice, and, in the month of June, proceeded to Paris, with fuller powers, and more ſpecific inſtructions from the Iriſh directory than had been furniſhed to Lewins. As the principal intention of Dr. M'Nevin's journey was

was to arrange the plan of the intended invaſion, he came with a preciſe project for the expedition. He recommended that the attempt ſhould be made at Oyſterhaven, rather than at Bantry; becauſe the reduction of the city of Cork would be greatly facilitated by that arrangement. An additional ſupply of arms was alſo required, as large ſeizures had been made by the Iriſh government; and the expences of this armament, as well as of the preceding one, under General Hoche, he undertook ſhould be defrayed by funds, for which the Iriſh republic, as ſoon as regularly conſtituted, ſhould be reſponſible.

The negociation was then pending at Liſle; and it was ſtrongly urged upon the directory, by the Iriſh agents, to inſiſt on the ſeparation of Ireland from Great Britain, as one of the preliminaries. Dr. M'Nevin was further inſtructed to negociate a loan of half a million of livres, in France or Spain, on the credit of the Iriſh directory; but in this object of his miſſion he was unſucceſsful. According to the memorial drawn up by Dr. M'Nevin, and preſented to the French government about the time of this negociation, nearly 150,000 United Iriſhmen were organized and enrolled, in the province of Ulſter only.

During theſe tranſactions in France, the natural impatience and impetuoſity of ſome of the party in Ireland could ſcarcely be reſtrained; and, in the ſpring of the year 1797, a plan was ſeriouſly diſcuſſed among the leaders in Dublin, for a general riſing, without waiting for foreign aſſiſtance; but the Dublin part of the committee over-ruled the propoſal, as being leſs ſanguine, and having more true information than their aſſociates. The Iriſh government, in the mean time, equally alarmed and perplexed by different menacing and contradictory reports, ſcarcely knew from what quarter to expect the blow, or what meaſures to adopt, either to diſcover the lurking treaſon, or anticipate its effects. They appear to have been ignorant, for a conſiderable time, of the nature of the conſtitution of

the United Iriſhmen, of the extent of their views, and the degree of their force. A diſcovery of ſome importance in the beginning of the year 1797, enabled them in ſome meaſure, to develope the myſterious proceedings of the ſociety, and to place themſelves in a poſture of defence. Information had been received, that a ſeditious meeting of ſome deſcription, or other, was to be held at the houſe of a perſon of the name of Alexander at Belfaſt, on Friday the 14th of April 1797.

On this information Colonel Barber was accompanied on this occaſion by Mr. Fox, the ſtore-keeper of the ordnance, and this gentleman entered one of the rooms, and Lieutenant Elliſon the other. They ſeized the papers and minutes. They found the printed declaration and conſtitution of the United Iriſhmen, various reports from provincial and county committees, and ſeveral other important documents, which left them no longer in doubt reſpecting the extent and views of this formidable conſpiracy. By the activity of the magiſtrates in other parts of the kingdom certain other papers, which were circulated by the ſociety, were diſcovered, and ſerved to throw further light on their proceedings, and to confirm the diſcoveries already made.

The important diſcovery of theſe papers came under the deliberation of both houſes of the Iriſh parliament, and ſecret committees to examine them were appointed; and upon the evidence they contained, a report was drawn up by each houſe. The vigour and activity of government was encreaſed; a large acceſſion was made to the military force of the kingdom; the inſurrection act was put in force in ſeveral parts; conſiderable diſtricts were proclaimed out of the King's peace; and large ſeizures were made of concealed arms. It is highly probable, that in purſuing theſe meaſures acts of rigour and of cruelty were wantonly exerciſed by the agents of government. Fear and alarm are ſtrong paſſions, and perhaps no others that actuate the human breaſt

breaſt diſpoſe more to cruel and ſanguinary exceſſes. Contrary to all law, human and divine, ſeveral perſons were flogged, and otherwiſe tortured to extort confeſſions! Every puniſhment, without trial, is a violation of juſtice; and men who were contending for the government and conſtitution of their anceſtors, ought to have been the laſt to violate that conſtitution, whatever the temptation; with the dignity becoming patriots, they ought to have placed themſelves upon the defenſive at every point, but not have ſuffered the ſlighteſt violation of theſe ſacred rights they pretented to defend with ſo much loyal zeal; and it is doubted, whether the policy of theſe proceedings was not as erroneous as the proceedings themſelves were blame-worthy. The inferior agents were little acquainted with the great ſcheme on which their chiefs were proceeding, and it is manifeſt that the conſpiracy was at leaſt not diſcovered by the infliction of arbitrary puniſhments. To defeat ſeditious machinations, rewards are always a more powerful inſtrument in the hands of government, than puniſhments.

Government, however, cannot be charged with every exceſs into which a heated ſoldiery may be occaſionally betrayed; and, on the other hand, if ſome groſs acts of ſeverity were exerciſed, it is poſſible that the provocations were many. Unhappy Ireland was at this period the theatre of aſſaſſination and outrage. The houſes of peaceable inhabitants were frequently aſſailed in the night, by perſons in connexion with the ſociety of United Iriſhmen; and ſome reſpectable perſons were murdered, in the moſt barberous manner, without provocation, and in ſome inſtances, without any reſiſtance.

The whig minority in the Iriſh parliament, made at this time ſome efforts towards ſteering a middle courſe; and to effect by conciliation, what others were effecting by force. In the month of May, 1797, Mr Ponſonby introduced a motion into the Iriſh houſe of Commons, in favour of a parliamentary reform. The arguments

ments uſed on both ſides turned chiefly on the preſent circumſtances of the nation. The whigs urged it as a means of ſatisfying the people, and allaying the diſcontents. The miniſterial ſide of the houſe aſſerted, on the contrary, that no time could poſſibly be ſo unfavourable as the preſent for making experiments on the government and conſtitution of the country. The motion was rejected by a majority of 117 votes to 30.

It is highly probable that the patriotic minority were unacquainted with the views and arrangements of the united men; otherwiſe, they muſt have known that no conceſſion of the kind would have ſatisfied that faction, whoſe object was avowedly to deſtroy the connection with Britain, and erect Ireland, under the patronage of France, into an independent republic. In imitation of the whig party in England, after this effort, the whig party in Ireland ſeceded in a body, and never afterwards took a part in parliamentary diſcuſſions.

Theſe political diſcords, however, were fatally felt in every part of the two kingdoms. For although the miniſters triumphed in their majorities, yet the cool and patriotic part of the nation perfectly knew how theſe majorities were obtained: and they lamented that the minority, in relinquiſhing their parliamentary repreſentation, had deprived the nation, at a critical moment, of the greateſt ſhare of public virtue and talents. In conſequence, commerce appeared to be totally ſtagnant; agriculture languiſhed, as whole diſtricts, through alarm or diſaffection, were nearly depopulated.

In proof of this, a proclamation was iſſued by the government, on the 17th of May, which exhibits a moſt affecting picture of the miſerable country of Ireland. It is the picture of a people deſerting all their peaceful occupations, and preparing for mutual ſlaughter! It ſtates, that, under various pretences, the moſt alarming and ſeditious aſſemblies were convened,—that large armed bodies of malcontents had plundered the houſes of the peaceful inhabitants,—that the diſtrict, or yeomanry

yeomanry forces, had been attacked with a view to diſarm them,—and that the growing timber of the country had been clandeſtinely cut down and conveyed away, for the fabrication of pikes and other offenſive weapons. It is further ſtated, that the exertions of the civil power had proved ineffectual for the ſuppreſſion of the conſpiracy, and for the protection of the lives and properties of his Majeſty's faithful ſubjects; and that it was now become neceſſary to employ the military force;—that orders had therefore been iſſued to all officers commanding his Majeſty's troops, to oppoſe, with their full power, all ſuch as ſhould obſtruct them in the execution of their duty. The proclamation concludes with an offer of pardon to all ſuch perſons as had joined the treaſonable ſocieties, on returning to their allegiance, excepting only ſuch as had been guilty of murder, conſpiracy of murder, burglary, burning of houſes, or other acts of plunder and devaſtation.

The determined ſpirit diſcovered in this proclamation, was ſo far from intimidating the united men, that they, on the contrary, proceeded with redoubled vigour. The concealed arms were ſlowly diſcovered, and with difficulty, ſince there does not appear to have been any general depot of hoſtile weapons; but each individual took care of his own. A plan being laid for a general inſurrection throughout Ulſter ſoon after this proclamation, a ſlight movement accordingly took place; but the main deſign was fruſtrated by the vigilance and activity of General Lake. Many of the leaders were compelled to fly, and ſome were apprehended. From the examination of John Hughes, of Belfaſt, however, before the committee of Lords, it appears that the inſurrection did not take place, becauſe the majority of the counties in Ulſter were diſinclined to come forward, and the majority of the rebel Colonels were of opinion that it was imprudent to act at that period without foreign aid.

The aſſiſtance expected was at this time in a very forward ſtate of preparation.

The

The Iriſh directory, in the month of July, received diſpatches from their miniſters at Paris, announcing that the armament, then fitting out in the Texel, was intended for Ireland. In conſequence of this information, the approach of the invaders was announced at the provincial meetings, in which it was ſtated, that the expedition was to proceed from two parts; that the French government had commanded their Admiral to proceed to ſea as ſoon as the wind ſhould be favourable, and fight the Engliſh; and that the Dutch admiral had received ſimilar orders. With this view, the troops under the command of General Daendaels had actually embarked on board the fleet in the Texel; but, for what reaſon it is uncertain, were ſuddenly put on ſhore. The Dutch fleet was afterwards ordered to put to ſea, and, as we have fully related, was defeated by Admiral Duncan, off Camperdown.

When the negociation at Liſle had failed, the French government gave the ſtrongeſt aſſurances, to the faction in Ireland, of ſpeedy and effectual ſupport; and that they would never abandon the cauſe of the Iriſh Union, or make peace with Great Britain, until the ſeparation of Ireland from that government ſhould be effected.

Notwithſtanding, however, of this apparent harmony, it has been aſſerted, that conſiderable jealouſies exiſted between the Iriſh faction and the French directory As is uſually the caſe, the ambition of the French uniformly encreaſed with their ſucceſſes on the continent; and ſome of the more profound politicians of the Iriſh ſaw, that the real object of the Gallic directory was, not to aſſiſt, but to ſubdue them.

Lord Edward Fitzgerald, and others of the chiefs of the union, were deſirous of a force, not exceeding ten thouſand men, nor leſs than five, and about forty thouſand ſtand of arms. The French, from a motive which they did not avow, refuſed to ſend a leſs force than 50,000 men. The plan recommended by Lord Fitzgerald was that which was beſt calculated to enſure ſucceſs.

ſucceſs.—It was to embark the troops in frigates, or other light ſailing veſſels; not to ſend them all in one fleet; and to land them on different parts of the coaſt, in bodies ſufficiently ſtrong to make a ſtand againſt any force that might eaſily be collected; but not ſo numerous as to require a fleet to convoy, or to occupy much time in their debarkation. Happily for the repoſe of theſe kingdoms, the ambition, or miſtaken politics of the French rulers led them to reject this plan, and to purſue meaſures which ended in the fruſtration of the conſpiracy, and the diſappointment and overthrow of its abettors.

The winter of 1797 was thus allowed to paſs by the French government without a ſingle effort to aſſiſt their Iriſh confederates; and thus the favourable and critical moment was ſuffered to eſcape. The Iriſh government was now completely on its guard; and the vigilance and activity of the miniſtry took the moſt effectual meaſures to prevent a ſimilar opportunity ever recurring.

The impetuoſity of the Iriſh, and wearied out by the tardy proceedings of their French allies, perceiving that their opponents were encreaſing in ſtrength, ſeemed to have reſolved upon a deſperate effort. In the month of February, a military committee was appointed by the executive council of the inſurgents; detailed inſtructions were iſſued by the Adjutant-generals; and thanks were voted to the ſeveral Colonels for their aſſiduity in embodying and organizing the people. In the mean time, the Iriſh executive prepared a diſpatch for the French directory, preſſing, in the moſt earneſt terms, for the promiſed ſuccours; but it was found impracticable to get the diſpatch conveyed. Though many of the united men were deprived by government of their arms, and though many timeouſly deſerted the cauſe, yet the zeal and impatience of the people in ſome diſtricts, kept pace with the ardour of their leaders, and the urgency of their affairs. In the months of February and March, many parts of Leinſter and Munſter

Munſter were in the actual poſſeſſion of the United Iriſhmen, and other parts were ſecretly under their controul.

The nocturnal inſurrections were innumerable throughout the kingdom. In one inſtance, an attack was made in the open day. The town of Cahir, in the county of Tipperary, was inveſted by a party of 800 men, chiefly cavalry. It was retained in their poſſeſſion till a regular ſearch was made for arms, and they were ſuffered to evacuate the place without moleſtation. We are ſorry to add, that the acts of murder and barbarity committed on theſe occaſions, were numerous; and ſuch was the terror generally excited, that the report of the committee of the Iriſh Commons, ſtates, that numbers of the loyal inhabitants of Cork, Limerick, Tipperary, &c. had fled for ſafety to the garriſon towns. The Iriſh government, juſtly alarmed, therefore, at the progreſs of the conſpiracy, on the 30th of March 1798, iſſued a proclamation, ſtating, that the traitorous conſpiracy, which had for ſome time exiſted, had broken out into open acts of rebellion and barbarous exceſſes; that, therefore, orders had been iſſued to the officers commanding his Majeſty's forces, to employ them with the utmoſt vigour and deciſion, for the immediate ſuppreſſion thereof; to endeavour to recover the arms which had been plundered, and to diſarm the rebels, and all diſaffected perſons, by the moſt ſummary and effectual means in their power.

When the proclamation was propoſed, a generous and humane effort was made by the Earl of Moira, ſupported by all thoſe who were at once the friends of order and liberty, to reſtore the tranquillity of the kingdom, by meaſures of conciliation.

For this laudable purpoſe, Lord Moira ſubmitted a motion to the houſe of Lords, on the 19th of February, 1798.

In his ſpeech, he repeated nearly the ſame facts which he had ſtated in his place in the Britiſh houſe of Peers.—He related, "that many individuals had been torn

torn from their families, and locked up for months in the cloſeſt confinement, without hearing by whom they were accuſed, with what crime they were charged, or to what means they were to recur to prove their innocence; that great numbers of houſes had been burned, with the whole property of the wretched owners, upon the looſeſt ſuppoſition of even petty tranſgreſſions; that torture, by which he meant picqueting and half-hanging, had been uſed in ſeveral places, in order to extort from the ſufferer a charge againſt his neighbour. If he ſhould be contradicted, with reſpect to theſe facts, he profeſſed himſelf prepared to produce the affidavits of them, and declared his intention of moving for the examination of the deponents at the bar of the houſe." After charging the Britiſh cabinet with all the evils in Ireland, which his Lordſhip conſidered as conſequences of the perverſe principles they had adopted for that country, his Lordſhip proceeded, in ſtrong terms, to recommend a conciliatory ſyſtem. "He allowed that conſpiracies might exiſt, and that atrocities had been committed in the country;—but," added Lord Moira, "have you not laws to repreſs thoſe enormities? and if your ſtatutes are not ſufficiently forcible for that purpoſe, why do you not apply to parliament for proviſions better calculated to repreſs the miſchief? If there are delinquencies, there muſt be delinquents. Prove their guilt and puniſh them; but do not, on a looſe charge of partial tranſgreſſion, impoſe infliction on the whole community. The ſtate of ſociety is dreadful indeed, when the ſafety of every man is at the mercy of a ſecret informer, when the cupidity, the malevolence, or the erroneous ſuſpicions of an individual, are ſufficient to deſtroy his neighbour."

Lord Moira was decidedly for conceding to the catholics all the privileges of citizens; and he likewiſe ſtrenuouſly contended for a parliamentary reform.

The Earl of Moira was anſwered by Lord Glentworth, who remarked that the motion appeared to him to be calculated to diſhearten and diſmay the loyal, and

to animate and invigorate the diſloyal.—He then entered into a detail of the machinations of the United Iriſhmen;—their atrocities, murders, &c.

The Lord Chancellor, however, replied to Lord Moira in a ſpeech, replete with ſterling ſenſe and genuine patriotiſm—and when he paid many high compliments to the diſintereſted philanthropy and benevolence of the noble earl, he at the ſame time wiſhed to impreſs on his mind a conviction of the neceſſity of purſuing vigorous meaſures;—otherwiſe, by the landing of a numerous army from France to join the ſtandard of rebellion, Ireland might be loſt forever.

The motion of Earl Moira was negatived by a large majority.

We will be excuſed, we hope, for giving a brief ſketch of the cauſes of diſcontent, which ſeems to have long poſſeſſed the minds of the Iriſh catholics, the origin of the inſurrection, and the ſentiments and reſolutions of the legiſlative and other bodies in that diſtracted kingdom, in conſequence of this melancholy event. But, however well meant the motion of the Earl of Moira might be, it is highly probable that he was unacquainted with the nature and extent of this vaſt and formidable conſpiracy. All men, however loyal, muſt certainly diſapprove of what has been termed in the Britiſh houſe of Commons, a vigour beyond the law; yet, it is likely that no meaſures of conciliation, at this critical period, would have had any great effect upon the minds of the United Iriſhmen. For, on the very day in which the Earl of Moira introduced his motion to the houſe of Lords, a reſolution was paſſed by the united committees of Ulſter and Leinſter, and entered in their books, importing, "that they would pay no attention whatever to any attempt that might be made by either houſe of parliament to divert the public mind from the grand object they had in view; as nothing ſhort of the complete emancipation of their country would ſatisfy them."

Hitherto

Hitherto the Iriſh government ſeemed to have proceeded on a ſyſtem, not deficient in vigour, but it was a vigour ill-directed, and little calculated to enſure the great objects, ſafety and ſucceſs. Individuals had been puniſhed, and many perſons had ſuffered both in their property and in their perſons; but they were individuals of no rank or conſequence, and probably not in the ſecret of the plot. The great authors and deſigners of the miſchief, ſtill remained untouched, the union undiſſolved; the rebel directory ſtill repoſed in peace, iſſuing their mandates in ſecret ſecurity—"They rode in the whirlwind, and directed the ſtorm."

It has been already related, that Arthur O'Connor, a diſtinguiſhed ſupporter of Earl Fitzwilliam's adminiſtration in the Iriſh parliament, ſoon after the abrupt recal of that nobleman, became an active member of the ſociety of United Iriſhmen. The ſplendid talents of Mr. O'Connor, were a ſerious acceſſion to the cauſe of the united men, and his courage was equal to his other talents.

A newſpaper, called the Northern Star, was publiſhed under the direction of Mr. Samuel Neilſon, an active and diſtinguiſhed member of the ſociety, and devoted to their cauſe. This obnoxious newſpaper was ſuppreſſed by the military, the preſſes broken, and the printing-houſe deſtroyed. To repair the loſs of the want of intelligence, the United Iriſhmen had eſtabliſhed, in Dublin, another entitled, "The Preſs;" but the intemperate language of this publication ſoon ſubjected it to a proſecution; the publiſher was impriſoned, and the paper in danger of being ſuppreſſed. In this criſis, Mr. O'Connor came boldly forward, and announced himſelf as the proprietor and editor of the offenſive paper. Mr. O'Connor was at this period elected a member of the Iriſh directory, in conjunction with Lord Fitzgerald, Mr. Oliver Bond, Dr. M'Nevin, and Councellor Emmet. Strong ſuſpicious, however, fell upon Mr. O'Connor; and his brother Roger O'Connor eſq. was apprehended and lodged in Cork goal, on a charge

charge of high treaſon, from which, however, he was liberated at the aſſizes, from a total want of evidence againſt him. Thus circumſtanced, in the beginning of the year 1798, Mr. O'Connor came to England with an intention, as it afterwards appeared, of proceeding to France, along with John Binns, an active member of the London correſponding ſociety, James Coigly, an Iriſh prieſt, and a perſon of the name of Allen. Mr. O'Connor, in the latter end of February, went to Margate, intending to hire a ſmall veſſel to convey them to France. Some circumſtances, however, exciting ſuſpicion, they were all apprehended, and firſt committed priſoners to the Tower, and afterwards to Maidſtone goal. At Maidſtone, they were tried by a ſpecial commiſſion, on the 21ſt and 22d of May, and all of them acquitted, except Coigly, on whom had been found a treaſonable, and moſt abſurd paper, purporting to be an addreſs "from the ſecret committee of England, to the executive directory of France." On this diſcovery, Coigly was found guilty, condemned, and executed. Mr. O'Conner and Binns after their acquittal were detained on another charge of treaſon preferred againſt them. The criſis now arrived which was to prove fatal to the United Iriſhmen. The plot was developed, and moſt of the machinations were ſucceſſively unfolded, and that too, ſeemingly, with little effort on the part of government. In this complicated affair, it naturally may be ſuppoſed that the ſecret was entruſted to the agency of many perſons: among the moſt conſiderable was a Mr. Reynolds, who had formerly been a ſilk-manufacturer of ſome eminence, in the city of Dublin, but had latterly reſided in the county of Kildare. Having been ſworn an United Iriſhmen, in February 1797, Reynolds was, in the following winter, appointed treaſurer for the county, and alſo a Colonel in the rebel army. The firſt diſcloſure which he made of the tranſactions of the United Iriſhmen, was to a Mr. Cope, with whom Reynolds had ſome pecuniary tranſactions relative to a mortgage on lands in the neighbourhood of Caſtle

Caſtle Jordon—in the courſe of a journey, to take poſſeſſion of theſe lands, Reynolds firſt communicated with Mr. Cope on the buſineſs. At the purſuaſion of this gentleman, he diſcloſed to him, from time to time, the nature and extent of the conſpiracy; and as a meeting of the delegates, for the province of Leinſter, was ſummoned for the 12th of March, at the houſe of Mr. Oliver Bond, he alſo gave information of it to government, through Mr. Cope. At the day and hour appointed for the meeting, the houſe of Mr. Bond was beſet by the officers of juſtice; fourteen of the delegates were apprehended, with their ſecretary, Mr. M'Cann; at the ſame time, Dr. M'Nevin, Councellor Emmet, and ſome other active members of the ſociety, were taken into cuſtody. A warrant had been iſſued againſt Lord Fitzgerald, but he eſcaped, and remained undiſcovered, for upwards of two months, in the city of Dublin. He was diſcovered, however, on the 19th of May, at the houſe of one Murphy, a dealer in feathers, who reſided near St. James's Gate. On the police officers entering the room, the unhappy nobleman made a deſperate reſiſtance; he wounded two of the principal of them, Mr. Juſtice Swan, and a Captain Ryan, dangerouſly; and was himſelf ſo ſeverely wounded, that he languiſhed a few days only before he expired. However raſh the reſiſtance which he made was, yet his death, it is ſaid, was that of a Chriſtian, and his courage and fortitude would have done honour to a better cauſe.

The ſeizure of the delegates, was a fatal blow to the ſchemes of the United Iriſhmen. But a new directory was choſen, although it ſoon experienced the fate of the former, and, indeed, their own raſhneſs, in all probability, haſtened the cataſtrophe. Their proceedings were developed and diſcloſed by another informer, this was a Captain Armſtrong, of the King's County militia, who had pretended to enter into the conſpiracy, with the intention of diſcovering their ſchemes, and betraying them to government. It appears that one part of their

plan

plan was to gain over as many of the King's troops to their ſide as poſſible, and particularly of the militia regiments, previouſly to their making a general attack upon the royal camp at Loughlinſtown. For this daring enterpriſe, the Captain ſeemed particularly qualified. He had been in the habits of frequenting the ſhop of a bookſeller of the name of Byrne, in Grafton-ſtreet, Dublin, who was generally regarded as one of the literary agents of the rebel faction. Among the leading members of the United Iriſhmen, were two young barriſters of the name of Sheares, both men of excellent talents, and unſullied reputation, and who had both of them, it is ſaid, been elected members of the Iriſh executive, after the arreſt of the old members on the 12th of March. To the acquaintance of theſe gentlemen, Byrne propoſed to introduce Captain Armſtrong, whom he had, from various converſations, been led to conſider as a convert to their cauſe; and Armſtrong had ſoon the addreſs to inſinuate himſelf completely into their confidence.

On the 10th of March, Armſtrong was introduced to Sheares's, and at that time the affairs of the United Iriſhmen appeared to approach towards a criſis. It was from this perſon, with other agents, that government learned that "a general riſing," as they termed it, of the people, muſt immediately take place; that the people began to be impatient from the criminal proſecutions; and that it was become neceſſary to make a home exertion, and give up the primary plan of waiting for French ſuccour. The whole of the United Iriſhmen throughout the kingdom, at leaſt through the province of Leinſter, it appears, were to act at once in concert; and they reſolved to ſtorm the camp at Loughlinſtown, to ſeize the artillery at Chapelizod, and the caſtle of Dublin, in the ſame night, being the 23d of May. One hour was to intervene between ſeizing the camp and the artillery, and one hour and a half between ſeizing the artillery and ſurpriſing the caſtle; and the parties who executed both of the external

nal plans, were to enter the city of Dublin at the ſame moment.

The ſignal to the inſurgents, for commencing every where their operations, was to be the ſtopping of the mail-coaches on the poſt roads. It was alſo planned, that a great inſurrection ſhould take place at Cork at the ſame time. The united men were, however, at this period, not exactly agreed as to the nature of the inſurrection. Mr. Samuel Neilſon, who had been peculiarly active in Belfaſt, and, as was before noticed, one of the proprietors of the Northern Star newſpaper, with ſome others of the leaders, were bent upon attacking firſt the county goal of Kilmainham, and the goal of Newgate, in order to ſet their comrades at liberty; and the project for attacking Newgate, was fixed for the 23d of May, the night of the general inſurrection. The Sheares's, however, and others, were of a contrary opinion, and they wiſhed to defer the attack of the goals, till after the general inſurrection had taken place; and even threatened to give government notice of the plot, if Neilſon and his aſſociates did not immediately renounce their project. As both plots, however, were known to government, they were both completely fruſtrated. Meſſrs. John and Henry Sheares, with ſome others of the principal conſpirators, were apprehended on the 21ſt of May, and Mr. Neilſon and others, on the 23d; the city and county of Dublin were proclaimed, by the Lord Lieutenant and council, in a ſtate of inſurrection; the guards at the caſtle, and all the great objects of attack, were trebled; and, in fact, the whole city was converted into a garriſon. By theſe vigorous meaſures, the inſurgents were unable to effect any thing by ſurpriſe; but without leaders, and almoſt without arms or ammunition, the infatuated multitude ventured on the bloody conteſt. Notwithſtanding the apparent forwardneſs of the north, the firſt commotions appeared in different parts of Leinſter. The northern and Connaught mail-coaches, were ſtopped by parties of the inſurgents, on the night of the 23d of May; and

and, about twelve o'clock at midnight of the 24th, a large body of rebels attacked the town and goal of Naas, about fourteen miles from Dublin, where Lord Gosford commanded. As the guard had been ſeaſonably encreaſed, in expectation of ſuch an attack, the aſſailants were repulſed, and driven into a narrow avenue, where, without order or diſcipline, they ſuſtained, for ſome time, the attack of the Armagh militia, and of the fencible corps raiſed by Sir W. W. Wynne, and known by the name of the Ancient Britons. The King's troops loſt two officers, and about thirty men, and the rebels had about 140 killed before they took to flight. They were, however, completely diſperſed, and ſeveral of them taken priſoners. On the ſame day, a ſmall diviſion of his Majeſty's forces were ſurpriſed at the town of Proſperous; and a detachment, at the village of Clare, cut their way through the Naas, with conſiderable loſs. About the ſame time, General Dundas encountered a large body of inſurgents, on the hills near Kilcullen, and 130 of theſe miſled perſons were left dead upon the ſpot.

As this painful detail is, however, connected with our ſubject, and as the two directories of France and Ireland had agreed on a confederation to diſunite Ireland from Britain, we have, with ſome degree of minuteneſs, given an account of the origin and progreſs of this inſurrection, and of their having in ſeveral parts of the kingdom actually taken the field, and of their firſt efforts in arms being defeated, we ſhall corroborate our narrative, by giving a further account of theſe tranſactions, as publiſhed by authority in the Gazette, and, as uſual, the reader will find a narration of theſe defeats of the rebels, as given by the Britiſh commanders of his Majeſty's forces in that diſtracted country, in a note below *.

On

* *From the London Gazette, May 29th.*

Whitehall, May 29th.—Diſpatches, of which the following are copies, have been received from his excellency the Lord Lieutenant of

On the 22d of May, a body of about 400 rebels, under the command of two gentlemen of the names of Ledwich and Keough, marched from Rathfarnham, in the

of Ireland, by his Grace the Duke of Portland, his Majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

Dublin-Caſtle, May 24th, 1798.

My Lord,

The intelligence contained in my laſt diſpatches muſt have prepared your Grace to hear of ſome attempts being made by the rebels to carry their traitorous deſigns into execution, before every poſſibility of ſucceſs was deſtroyed, by the vigorous meaſures which have been lately purſued.

For ſome days, orders had been iſſued by the leaders of the United Iriſhmen, directing their partizans, to be ready at a moment's notice, as the meaſures of government made it neceſſary for them to act immediately. Yeſterday advice was received, that it was probable, the city of Dublin, and the adjoining diſtricts, would riſe in the evening; ſubſequent information confirmed this intelligence. In conſequence of which, notice was ſent to the general officers in the neighbourhood, and the capital was put in a ſtate of preparation. The meaſures taken in the metropolis prevented any movements whatever; but I am concerned to acquaint your Grace, that acts of open rebellion were committed in the counties of Dublin, Meath, and Kildare. About half paſt two o'clock this morning, there was a regular attack made, by a rebel force, upon the town of Naas, where Lord Gosford commanded, with a party of the Armagh militia, detachments of the 4th dragoon guards, and the Ancient Britiſh. The rebels conſiſted of about 1,000 men, armed with muſkets and pikes, and they made their attack with regularity, but were ſoon repulſed by the Armagh militia, and then charged and purſued by the 4th dragoon guards and Ancient Britiſh; and, I underſtand their loſs amounted to near 200 men. Two officers, and a few privates of his Majeſty's forces have been killed. It gives me pain to relate, that a ſmall detachment at the town of Proſperous has been ſurpriſed, and a detachment at the village of Clare, cut their way to Naas, with ſome loſs. There was alſo an attack on a ſmall party of the 9th dragoons, near Kilcullen, which ſuffered, but, in the courſe of the day, General Dundas was enabled to come up with a conſiderable body of the rebels, near the hills of Kilcullen, where they were intirely routed, with the loſs of 200 men. There were alſo ſeveral bodies collected laſt night in different parts near Dublin, which were attacked by the Rathfarnham cavalry, and by a detachment of the 5th dragoons, and diſperſed with ſome loſs, and ſome priſoners and horſes taken. A rebel party, how-

the neighbourhood of Dublin, along the foot of the mountain, towards Belgatt and Cloudalkin: in their progreſs they were met by a party of thirty-five dragoons,

ever, aſſembled at the borders of the county of Dublin, near Dunboyne, and overpowered ſome conſtables, and afterwards took the baggage of two companies, guarded by a ſmall party of the Reay fencibles, coming to town, and have, during the courſe of this day, committed many outrages; ſeveral of them, however, have been killed, but the body remains undiſperſed. The capital is tranquil, and I have no doubt will remain ſo this evening, and I truſt that on to-morrow, we ſhall completely diſperſe that body of the inſurgents which had not been entirely routed to day.

I muſt add that the mail coach, going to the north, was attacked within a few miles of Dublin, by a ſelect body well armed; the paſſengers were taken, and the coach burned. The Galway mail coach was alſo attacked in the town of Lucan, but the rebel party was driven off before the deſtruction of the coach was effected. In conſequence of this deſperate conduct of the rebellious, I iſſued a proclamation, with the advice of the privy council.

I ſhall, in a future diſpatch, detail to your Grace the particular ſervices which have been performed, but at preſent I am not furniſhed with reports of an authentic and regular kind, except from Lord Goſford, who appears to have acted with great firmneſs and deciſion.

I am, &c. &c.

CAMDEN.

His Grace the Duke of Portland, &c. &c. &c.

Here follows his exellency's proclamation—but as it is long and circumſtantial, and the ſubſtance of which we have inſerted in the text, we will not trouble our readers with it.

Extract of a letter from Lord Viſcount Goſford, Colonel of the Armagh militia, and Major Wardle of the Ancient Britiſh light dragoons, to Lieutenant-general Lake, dated Naas, Thurſday morning, eight o'clock, 24th of May, 1798.

This morning, about half paſt two o'clock, a dragoon, from an out-poſt, came in and informed Major Wardle, of the Ancient Britiſh, that a very conſiderable armed body were rapidly approaching upon the town. The whole garriſon were inſtantly under arms, and took up their poſitions according to a plan previouſly formed, in caſe of ſuch an event happening. They made the attack upon our troops near the gaol, with great violence, but were repulſed; they made a general attack in almoſt every direction, as they had got poſſeſſion of almoſt every avenue into the town. They continued to engage the troops for near three quarters of an hour, when they

gave

goons, under the command of Lord Roden. After ſome reſiſtance, the rebels were defeated, (ſo little were they acquainted with military affairs) great numbers were killed and wounded, and their leaders, Ledwich and Keough, were taken. They were immediately

gave way, and fled on all ſides. The cavalry immediately took advantage of their confuſion, charged in almoſt every direction, and killed a great number of them. A great quantity of arms and pikes was taken, and within this half hour, many hundreds were brought in, found in pits near the town, together with three men with green cockades, all of whom were hanged in the public ſtreet. We took another priſoner, whom we ſpared, in conſequence of his having given us information that will enable us to purſue theſe rebels, and from this man we learn that they were above 1,000 ſtrong; that they were commanded, according to his information, by Michael Reynolds, who was well mounted, and dreſſed in yeoman uniform, but had made his eſcape; his horſe we have got. About thirty rebels were killed in the ſtreets; in the fields, we imagine, about 100. Their bodies have not yet been brought together.

It is impoſſible to ſay too much of the cavalry and infantry; their conduct was exemplary throughout.

Dublin Caſtle May 25th, 1798.

Extract of a letter from Lieutenant-general Dundas to Lord Viſcount Caſtlereagh, dated Naas, May 25th, 1798.

In addition to the account I had the honour of ſending you yeſterday, I have the ſatisfaction to inform your Lordſhip, that about two P. M. yeſterday, I marched out again to attack the rebels, who had aſſembled in great force on the north ſide of the Liffey, and were advancing towards Kilcullen bridge: they occupied the hills on the left of the road leading to Dublin, the road itſelf, and the fields, highly enclоſed on the right. The attack began between three and four; was made with great gallantry; the infantry forcing the enemy on the road, and driving them from the hills on the left; the cavalry, with equal ſucceſs, cutting off their retreat. The affair ended ſoon after four. The ſlaughter was conſiderable for ſuch an action; one hundred and thirty lay dead—*no priſoners.*

I have the further ſatisfaction of ſtating to your Lordſhip, that his Majeſty's troops did not ſuffer in either killed or wounded. The rebels left great quantities of all kinds of arms behind them, and fled in all directions.

The troops of every deſcription, both officers and men, ſhewed a degree of gallantry which it was difficult to reſtrain within prudent bounds.

ately tried by a court-martial, and hanged, although they powerfully pled that they were forced into the ſervice.

On the 26th, another body of rebels was defeated at Tallagh-hill, about thirteen miles from Dublin, with the loſs of 350 killed, among whom was their commander, who was ſuppoſed, from various circumſtances, to have been an officer in the French ſervice. In the mean time, alarming commotions had appeared in remoter parts. The town of Carlow was attacked on the morning of the 24th of May, by about 1,000 rebels. The firſt movenent, on the part of the inſurgents, was to poſſeſs themſelves of ſome pieces of cannon, which, however, they were forced to abandon. The command of the town, or garriſon, as it was termed (for at this unfortunate period, the principal towns were converted into garriſons), was entruſted to Major Dennis, who, with one troop of horſe, and two companies of militia, aſſiſted by ſome corps of volunteers, defeated the rebels, with the loſs of 400 men. As the inhabitants were accuſed of having fired out of their houſes upon the King's troops, the military, in revenge, are ſaid to have burned a part of the town. The town of Kildare, was alſo reſcued from the rebels, by Sir James Duff, on the 29th of May, after an action in which 200 of the inſurgents fell.

But the rebellion raged with the greateſt violence in the counties of Wicklow and Wexford. On the 25th of May, they appeared in great force, ſuppoſed to amount to 15,000 ſtrong, in the county of Wexford and Enniſcorthy, which is ſituated on the river Slaney, about twelve miles diſtant from Wexford. A party of the North Cork militia, was ordered out from Wexford, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Foot, and Major Lombard, to meet the party of rebels which was advancing towards that place. They marched to a place called Oulard, where they were met by the inſurgents in great force. The ground where the King's forces took poſt was ſo unfavourable, that, after firing

firing three rounds, the whole party was ſurrounded and cut to pieces, except Colonel Foot and two privates, who alone eſcaped.

This ſucceſs elevated the hopes of the inſurgents, to attain ſtill their great object, and to proſecute the war with vigour; and, on the 28th, made an attack on the town of Enniſcorthy, which they carried, ſword in hand, with the loſs, however, of 500 men.

The loyaliſts, it is ſaid, would have repulſed the rebels, had not the catholic inhabitants treacherouſly ſet fire to the town, to ſmother the troops who were defending it. The mode in which the inſurgents made their attack, is ſaid to have been by driving an immenſe number of horſes and cattle before them to diſorder the ranks of the loyaliſts, and throw them, by that means, into confuſion.

On the 29th, a ſmall reinforcement of the Donegal militia arrived at Wexford; but a party of the Meath militia, with three howitzers, advancing on the ſame ſervice, fell into the hands of the rebels. On the preceding day, however, the Cork and Donegal militia, who were in Wexford, marched out to a place called the Three Rocks to meet the rebels; but they found them in ſuch force, that, after ſome firing, they were obliged to retreat, and return to the town.

There were confined, at this time, in the gaol of Wexford, on the charge of treaſon, Mr. Beauchamp Bagenal Harvey, Mr. Edward Fitzgerald, and Mr. John Colclough; the former a proteſtant, and, it is ſaid, educated to the bar; the latter gentlemen were Roman catholics; all of them men of fortune, and of conſiderable intereſt in the county. The majority of the proteſtant inhabitants, who were not on military ſervice, with numbers of women and children, had got on board the veſſels in the harbour, in order to effect their eſcape to England or Wales. Thoſe who remained, on the 30th of May, aſſembled in council, with the principal officers, for the melancholy purpoſe of deliberating on the beſt mode of treating with the rebels; and

and it was determined that two gentlemen, Mr. Richards, a barriſter, and Dr. Jacob, a phyſician, who was at that time Mayor of the town, ſhould proceed to the camp of the rebels, and make the beſt conditions they could, with reſpect to the lives and property of the inhabitants. In the mean time, the troops, and ſome of the women, effected their eſcape to Duncannon fort, which was diſtant about twenty miles. About one o'clock that day, the white flag was diſplayed from the town-houſe, and the veſſels in the harbour were ordered back to the quay, having been enabled to ſail. Diſgraceful was the tumultuous diſorder which took place on the rebels gaining poſſeſſion of the town; the houſes of the peaceable proteſtants were ranſacked, and the greater part of the inhabitants thrown into priſon. Their friends who were confined there, were liberated, and Mr. B. Harvey was nominated to the chief command of the army.

Fluſhed with ſucceſs, and after leaving a large garriſon in the town of Wexford, the rebel army marched, under the command of Mr. Harvey, to the attack of New Roſs, where Major-general Johnſon was poſted with a conſiderable force. The town was regularly ſummoned by Harvey, who now aſſumed the character of General; and, on the morning of the 5th of June, it was attacked with great impetuoſity; but, after a conteſt of ſeveral hours, the rebels were completely repulſed; and, late in the evening, retired to Carrickburne, leaving behind them ſeveral iron ſhip-guns, which appear to have been the only artillery with which they were furniſhed on this occaſion. The ſlaughter of the rebels was prodigious; the King's troops loſt about ninety men in killed, among whom was Lord Mountjoy, Colonel of the county of Dublin militia, and about 130 in wounded and miſſing. It is with the moſt pungent ſenſations that truth compels us to relate, that in revenge for this miſcarriage, the inſurgents in Wexford maſſacred, in cold blood, ten of the unfortunate proteſtants of Enniſcorthy who were

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in Wexford gaol. Ninety-five of the loyaliſts of Wexford were, in a few days after, taken out of the priſon, and wantonly and barbarouſly murdered on the bridge by the rebels.

Another party of the inſurgents, about the ſame time, belonging to the county of Wexford, attacked the ſmall town of Gorey, but here again they were repulſed; while another party from Vinegar-hill, a ſtrong poſt within a mile of Enniſcorthy, proceeded, on the 1ſt of June, to Newton-Barry. They ſurrounded the town in ſuch a manner, that Colonel Leſtrange, of the King's County militia, who commanded there, was obliged at firſt to retreat, in order to collect his forces. He, in his turn, attacked the rebels, and drove them through the town with great ſlaughter; their loſs being computed at 500 killed; while Colonel Leſtrange's whole force was, at leaſt, 100 men ſhort of that number.

But, on the 4th of June, the royal forces received a tranſient check, which in ſome degree counterbalanced their ſucceſſes. Colonel Walpole, on that day, attacked a ſtrong poſt of the rebels near Slievebay Mountain. In the beginning of the action, the commander was unfortunately killed by a ſhot through the head; and his corps being in a ſituation where it could not act with advantage, was forced to retreat to Arklow, where General Needham commanded a conſiderable body of the King's forces. In this retreat the royal party loſt fifty-four men killed, and two ſix-pounders.

Encouraged by this ſucceſs, the rebel army, on the 9th of June, preſented itſelf before Arklow, where General Needham commanded a conſiderable body of the King's forces. They approached in two ſtrong columns, from the Coolgrenny-road, along the ſand-hills, while the whole of the intermediate ſpace was crowded by a rabble, armed with pikes and fire-arms, and preſſing on without any regular order.

The poſition General Needham had choſen, was a ſtrong one, in front of the barrack. As ſoon as the enemy

enemy approached within a ſhort diſtance, he opened a very heavy fire of grape-ſhot, which, he obſerves, did as much execution, as, from the nature of the ground, and the ſtrong fences of which the rebels poſſeſſed themſelves, could have been expected. This fire continued inceſſantly for two hours and a half, when the enemy at length deſiſted from their attack, and fled in diſorder on every ſide. The rebels, as uſual, loſt a great number of men, while the loſs of the royal forces was inconſiderable.

As the nation expreſſed a high degree of anxiety and concern occaſioned by theſe alarming diſorders; as alſo to exculpate us from even the ſlighteſt imputation of partiality, we ſhall again corroborate our detailed account of the Iriſh tranſactions by inſerting the accounts of them as publiſhed by authority, as our readers will find below *.

Hitherto

* *Whitehall, June 9th.*—The following diſpatch has been received from the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

Dublin-Caſtle, June 4th.

My Lord,

Yeſterday a diſpatch was received from Major-general Loftus, conveying information from Lieutenant Elliot, of the Antrim militia, that a ſmall party of the troops of the North Cork, attacked the rebels at Bally-canne, defeated them, killed about 100, and diſperſed the remainder.

CAMDEN.

Dublin-Caſtle, June 5th, five P. M.

I am ſorry to inform your Lordſhip, that Major Marley informs me, that Colonel Walpole had received a check, and afterwards, meeting with the main body of the rebel forces, had the misfortune to be ſhot through the head, and his corps was obliged to retreat to Arklow. The loſs on the ſide of his Majeſty's forces, was fifty-four men killed and miſſing, and two ſix pounders; ſeveral other officers were wounded, but I hope not dangerouſly.

Dublin-Caſtle, June 8th.

My Lord,

I am to acquaint your Grace, that early this morning, General Lake received an expreſs from Major-general Johnſon, dated the 5th

Hitherto the King's troops had been acting only on the defenſive; but General Lake now began to advance towards the ſeat of rebellion in the ſouth, with large

5th inſtant, at New Roſs. He ſtates, that the rebels had, on that morning, attacked his poſition at New Roſs, with a very numerous force, and with great impetuoſity; but that, after a conteſt of ſeveral hours, they were completely repulſed. The loſs of the rebels was prodigiouſly great. An iron ſhip-gun was taken from the rebels, when they retreated with great diſpatch; late in the evening, to Carrick Byrne, leaving ſeveral iron ſhip-guns not mounted. Lord Mountjoy fell early in the action, &c. &c.

CAMDEN.

Dublin-Caſtle, June 9th.

My Lord,

It is with the utmoſt concern, I acquaint your Lordſhip, that an inſurrection has broke out it the county of Antrim—but I am in great hopes, from the number and ſpirit of the loyal in that part of the country, the inſurgents will be quickly checked.

I am, &c.

CAMDEN.

Belfaſt, June 8th.

My Lord,

I have the honour to report to your Lordſhip, that in conſequence of information, which I received yeſterday morning, of an intended inſurrection in the county of Antrim, having for its object, firſt, the ſeizure of the magiſtrates, &c. I arreſted ſeveral perſons in Belfaſt.—Hearing that they had actually taken poſſeſſion of Antrim, I ordered the 64th regiment, and light battalion, 100 of the 22d light dragoons, under Colonel Clavering, with ſome other troops from the garriſon of the Monaghan militia. The dragoons, under Lieutenant-colonel Lumley, having made the attack upon the town, without waiting for the light battalion, were fired upon from the windows of the houſes, and were conſequently obliged to retreat, with the loſs of (I am ſorry to add) three officers of that excellent regiment, killed and wounded, and two curricle ſix pounders.

Colonel Clavering, on his arrival near Antrim, finding the rebels pouring into that town in great force, very judiciouſly took poſt on a hill on the Liſburne ſide.—in the mean time, Colonel Durham, with his whole detachment, proceeded to within half a mile of Antrim, and, after a cannonade of half an hour, drove the inſurgents completely out of the town.—The Colonel then proceeded, without the loſs of a man, to Shane's Caſtle, in which direction the princi-

large reinforcements. On the 12th of June, Major-general Sir Charles Asgill attacked a rebel camp at the Boat, near Ross, which he dispersed.

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pal part of the rebels fled.—I make no doubt that we shall prevent the rebels from gaining any advantages, and ultimately, we hope, to compel them to return to their allegiance.

G. NUGENT, Major-general.

Dublin Castle, June 17th, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the honour to acquaint your Grace, that a letter has been this day received by Lieutenant-general Lake from General Nugent, at Belfast, stating, that the rebels in the county of Antrim were dispersed in all directions; and that many of them had laid down their arms.

Major-general Nugent also states, that Mr. M'Cleverty had returned from Donnegor-hill, whither he had been carried prisoner by a body of 2,000 rebels. While they were in this station, they quarrelled among themselves, and, from his persuasion, above 1,500 left the camp, broke their arms, and declared they would never more carry arms against his Majesty.—Many were dispersed, and the commander left with only fifty men.

CAMDEN.

His Grace the Duke of Portland.

Dublin Castle, June 28th, 1798.

My Lord,

I have the honour to acquaint your Grace, that General Nugent, hearing that the enemy, in great force, were posted at Saintfield, attacked them next morning at three o'clock, having occupied two hills on the left and right of the town, ordering Colonel Leslie to make an attack on their front. Having two howitzers, and six six-pounders, General Nugent was, in co-operation with Colonel Leslie, enabled to annoy them very much from different parts of his well-chosen position.

The rebels attacked Colonel Leslie's detachment with great impetuosity, and even jumped into the road, from the Earl of Moira's demesne, to endeavour to take one of his guns, but they were repulsed with considerable slaughter. In their turn, the rebels, being attacked by Lieutenant-colonel Stewart's detachment, were defeated with considerable loss, the howitzers and six-pounders making terrible slaughter, and they fled in all directions. Their force was, on the evening of the 12th, near 5,000 strong, of whom about 400 were killed, and the remainder were scattered all over the country. Three or four green colours were taken, and one six-

pounder,

The main body of the rebels ſtill retained their ſtrong poſition on Vinegar-hill, a poſition from which they could not have been diſlodged, had they been proviſioned, and poſſeſſed of military ſkill. General Lake, aware of the difficulties he had to encounter, of the great diſadvantage that would attend a repulſe, and deſirous of terminating the war in this quarter of Ireland, if poſſible, at one deciſive blow, made his approaches quietly, and with great caution.—A cordon of troops was gradually collected from different quarters, which almoſt ſurrounded the rebel ſtation. The 21ſt of June was deſtined for the grand attack, which the commander in chief, General Lake, ordered to be made, in ſeveral columns, under Generals Dundas, Johnſon, Euſtace, Duff, and Loftus. The rebels made an obſtinate ſtand for an hour and a half; but at length, ſenſible of the danger of being ſurrounded, they quitted their poſition, and fled with precipitation. The ſlaughter of the fugitives muſt have been very great, though General Lake ſays, in his diſpatches, that it could not then be aſcertained. The rebels loſt thirteen ſmall pieces of ordnance, of different calibres.

Imme-

pounder, diſmounted.—Their commander was one Munro, a ſhopkeeper, of Liſburn.

Advices are alſo received from Sir Charles Aſgill. That officer, hearing that a large body of the rebels had marched from the county of Wexford, againſt Borris, under the command of Mr. Bagenal Harvey, and were burning the town, marched to its relief with 400 men, but the rebels had fled before he could arrive.—The rebels effected their eſcape into the county of Wexford.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CAMDEN.

His Grace the Duke of Portland.

Many other ſimilar diſpatches were received by government, from Ireland, to the ſame import, by which it appears, that numerous and determined as the inſurgents ſeemed to be, yet they were by no means in a capacity to reſiſt the regular forces ſent againſt them.—That they ſeemed to have been completely duped by Gallic profeſſions, and pompous promiſes, which they neither meant, nor actually ever fulfilled.

Immediately after this action, a large body of the King's forces advanced to Wexford, which General Moore entered ſo opportunely, as to prevent the town from being laid in aſhes, as the rebels intended. Previous to the evacuating the place, the inſurgents endeavoured to treat. Captain Keugh, who had ſerved with credit in the American war, had been appointed by the rebels the governor of Wexford. On the approach of the King's troops, a Captain M'Namus, of the Antrim Militia, who had been taken priſoner in one of the actions in which the inſurgents had been ſucceſsful, and Captain Hay, who had been taken in a ſloop with Lord Kingſborough, in endeavouring to join their regiment (the Cork), were diſpatched by Keugh, with offers to deliver up the town, upon the condition that all concerned in the inſurrection ſhould have their perſons and properties guarantied by the commanding officer. General Lake, however, only replied, that he could not attend to any terms offered by rebels in arms againſt their ſovereign. To the deluded multitude only he promiſed pardon, on condition of their delivering up their leaders, and returning with ſincerity to their allegiance.

On receiving this anſwer, the rebel troops evacuated the town, which was peaceably taken poſſeſſion of by his Majeſty's forces on the 22d of June.

Mr. Bagenal Harvey and Mr. Colclough quitted the rebel army ſoon after the battle of Roſs, diſguſted, as they declared in their laſt moments, with the cruelties and oppreſſion which had been exerciſed on ſuch proteſtants and loyaliſts as had fallen into the hands of the rebellious mob. Theſe two unfortunate gentlemen were diſcovered and taken in a cave, on one of the Saltee iſlands, or rather rocks, which lie in the entrance of Wexford harbour, on the 26th of June; and with Keugh, the rebel governor, Cornelius Grogan, a very opulent and penurious old gentleman, who declared he had been forced to join the rebels, and ſome others,

others, were tried by a court-martial, and hanged on the bridge of Wexford.

It ſeems evident, that the conduct of the rebels even independent of the maſſacre of their priſoners, was extremely cenſurable, while the rebellion raged in the county of Wexford. At Scollobogue, a few miles from Wexford, a number of proteſtant priſoners were maſſacred, with many circumſtances of barbarity; and at the ſame place, a barn was afterwards ſet on fire, where the proteſtants were confined, and upwards of 100 of them barbarouſly burned, or ſuffocated to death! The wretched victims who attempted to eſcape through a ſmall window were received on the pikes of the rebels and thrown back into the flames! An almoſt indiſcriminate ſyſtem of plunder was exerciſed upon friends and foes; nor were the leaders able to preſerve the leaſt order or diſcipline among their fanatical and licentious followers. It is a circumſtance rather remarkable, that though the chiefs of the United Iriſhmen were evidently hoſtile to all religious eſtabliſhments, the common people were directly the contrary; and the majority of them engaged in the cauſe profeſſedly, becauſe they believed "that the heretics, who had reigned upward of 100 years, were now to be extirpated, and the true catholic religion eſtabliſhed." Such proteſtants as joined the rebel army, were obliged to be baptized in the Romiſh chapels; and even Mr. Bagenal Harvey and other chiefs were compelled to attend maſs, and, at leaſt outwardly, to conform to the rites of that religion.

We have already obſerved that the rebellion took its firſt riſe in the northern provinces of Ireland; yet they were ſurpaſſed in preparation and by formidable heads in point of number by thoſe of the ſouth. Various have been the reaſons aſſigned for this difference in the preparations and movements of the inſurgents; perhaps as government directed their attention by ſending more troops into the ſouthern provinces, prevented them from being ſo early prepared for hoſtilities as the more northerly provinces, and greater vigilance and circumſpection

ſpection were uſed by the officers as well as the civil magiſtrates and other perſons to quell the rebellion. But it is remarkable that the ſame ſpirit of bloody bigotry and ſavage barbarity actuated the greater part of the inſurgents both in the ſouth and north of Ireland. It is a memorable circumſtance, that when the deluded Scotch Highlanders, in the year 1745, made their inroads into the Lowlands of Scotland, and from thence to Derbyſhire in England, when finding they were joined by few or next to none of the inhabitants of any conſequence, they thereupon reſolved to retreat; in doing which, although followed hard by a numerous army of veteran troops, with a large train of artillery, being overwhelmed with fatigue, and oppreſſed with cold and hunger, yet, under all thoſe preſſures at which nature revolts, they ſcarcely committed a ſingle outrage, nor were their hands ſtained with a drop of innocent blood. Even after their ſhort-lived victory at Preſtonpans, they treated the royal priſoners who fell into their hands with all the lenity and humanity that were in their power, as the priſoners themſelves generouſly declared. To what cauſe then muſt we aſcribe this ferocious ſanguinary ſpirit that has ever characterized the rebellions of the Iriſh?—Take them individually, in civil life, they are a frank generous people; whence then theſe atrocities committed in 1798? Muſt we aſcribe them to the furious zeal of their religious leaders? We doubt truth will compel us to reſt the blame there.—To corroborate our ſuſpicion, let us hear the condid account of this matter by a well informed gentleman who was an eye-witneſs of theſe horrible exceſſes, and judiciouſly aſſigns their cauſe and origin; and we ſhall give this in his own words.

"Whatever might have been the real views (ſays this ſenſible writer) of the politicians whoſe harangues and writings tend to produce this dreadful rebellion, which profeſſedly they denominated reform, toleration, emancipation &c. &c. the very reverſe would have been the effect of it. The intollerant prejudices of the catholics,

catholics, it was ſoon proved, had no bounds. The extinction of the proteſtant religion was the favourite idea of the great maſs of the rebels, and their ſtrongeſt motive to action. Reform was never thought of by them; nothing leſs than breaking off all connection with England, and a total change of the eſtabliſhed government in Ireland; and even of being able to attack England as an enemy was warmly encouraged by them. So far from toleration in religious matters being allowed, Mr. Bagenal Harvey and their other proteſtant leaders, thought it prudent to attend maſs in their camps.

In the town of Wexford, proteſtant men and women were obliged to recant; and, with their children, to be baptized in the catholic chapel, after the Roman catholic manner, and to attend maſs. Even the protection granted by the prieſts to the proteſtants, men and women, after they had been thus baptized was 'Protect, in the name of Jeſus Chriſt, A. B. he or ſhe having been made a chriſtian, and a member of the catholic church.' (Signed by the prieſt.) But here I muſt, in juſtice to many excellent catholic prieſts, make a diſtinction between them and ſuch others as fomented the diſturbances.

"It was not by deſire of the prieſts of the town of Wexford, that the proteſtants were forced to yield to this neceſſity; but it was owing to the ferocity of the mob, who could not bear the name of a proteſtant. The conduct of the Roman catholic clergy of Wexford, cannot be too much commended. Dr. Caulfield, the titular biſhop of Leighlinand Ferns, Father Curran, Father Bore, and, indeed, the whole of the prieſts and friars of that town, on all occaſions, uſed their intereſt, and exerted their abilities, in the cauſe of humanity. Every Sunday, after maſs, they addreſſed their audience, in the moſt earneſt manner, not to ill-treat their priſoners, and not to have upon their conſciences the reflection of having ſhed innocent blood.

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" I wiſh I could with truth ſpeak as favourably of other deſcriptions of the catholic prieſts, as I am bound to do of thoſe of Wexford; but greater monſters of iniquity than ſome of the country prieſts, I believe, never exiſted. Every deception that could influence the minds of the infatuated people was practiſed by them. It will hardly be credited, in this country, that thouſands of the Iriſh are in ſuch a ſtate of ignorance, as eaſily to believe the moſt extravagant reports and deluſions. At the battle of the Three Rocks, before the town of Wexford was taken by the rebels, a prieſt, of the name of Murphy, marched at their head, telling them to follow him, and not to fear; for if they took up the duſt from the roads, and threw it at the King's troops, they would fall dead before them! The rebel camps were conſtantly attended by numbers of thoſe prieſts, ſaying maſs every day, and pretending to give charms which would prevent the balls of the ſoldiers from injuring them. To this cauſe principally may be attributed the undaunted manner in which the rebels often marched up to the mouth of the enemy's cannon. You might ſee hundreds of them with cords round their waiſts, on which were *ſeven knots*, which, they were perſuaded to believe, would effectually preſerve them in the day of battle! That no compunction might riſe in their breaſts, on account of the murders they were daily committing, their prieſts aſſured them it was ordained by God, and that it had been prophecied, there ſhould be but one religion, and that was to be the Roman catholic; ſo that, in deſtroying the proteſtants, they were performing a duty to heaven. It may here be aſked, 'Were there no proteſtants among the rebels?' I anſwer, ſome few proteſtants there certainly were; and they found it neceſſary to aſſent, and to accommodate themſelves to the humours, the prejudices, the vices, and the cruelties of the catholic mob, and by that means prevent diſunion."

JACKSON'S NARRATIVE.

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The Britiſh government were by no means diſſatiſfied with the vicegerency of Lord Camden in Ireland; but conſidering the fierce and hoſtile ſtate of that country, and probably conſidering it more deſperate than it really was, determined in the cabinet to appoint to the ſiſter kingdom a Lord Lieutenant inveſted with the military character. The high reputation which the Marquis Cornwallis had attained, not only for his military talents, but his other amiable endowments, particularly deſigned him to this high and important viceroyalty; he was accordingly choſen, and ſent to Ireland. Inveſted with this office, he arrived at Dublin, in that capacity, on the 20th of June, and immediately aſſumed the reins of government. On the 17th of July, he ſent a meſſage to the houſe of Commons, by Lord Caſtlereagh, intimating, that he had received his Majeſty's command to acquaint them—"That he had ſignified his gracious intention of granting a general pardon for all offences committed on or before a certain day, upon ſuch conditions, and with ſuch exemptions, as might be compatible with the general ſafety."

But, "theſe offers of mercy to the repentant, were not to preclude meaſures of vigour againſt the obſtinate."

In the mean time, a ſpecial commiſſion was opened at Dublin for the trial of the principal delinquents. Meſſrs. John and Henry Sheares, Mr. M'Cann, ſecretary to the county meeting, and Mr. William Byrne, an active member in the ſociety of United Iriſhmen, were all tried, convicted, and executed. Mr. Oliver Bond was tried on the 23d of July, convicted, and condemned; and in his fate the other conſpirators began to ſee their own.

The rebellion was now apparently cruſhed. The people were every where returning to their allegiance, and delivering up their arms.—Their hopes from France had been miſerably diſappointed; and nothing appeared before their eyes but individual deſtruction, without having effected any one purpoſe for which they aſſoci-

ated. Thus prepared for ſubmiſſion, and for the diſcloſure of the deſtructive plans in which they had been engaged, a negociation was happily opened between the Iriſh government and the ſtate delinquents. The circumſtances which led to this treaty have never been publiſhed by authority; but the real cauſe of this lenity, in thoſe who were in power, ſeems to have been as follows:—as Mr Bond was highly and reſpectably connected, powerful intereſt, from various quarters, was made to ſave his life. It is credibly ſuppoſed, that it was then intimated, on the part of government, that if Mr. Bond would conſent to give adminiſtration all the information he was poſſeſſed of, relative to the conſpiracy, not with a deſign to multiply examples of puniſhment, and augment the number of public executions, but to put it in the power of government to quiet the public mind, reſpecting the extent and danger of the late conſpiracy, now happily at an end, Mr. Bond's ſentence might be commuted for that of exile. Mr. Bond at firſt rejected this propoſal, if his information or evidence might endanger the life of any man with whom he was connected. The ſcheme of mercy, it was ſaid, was then extended on the part of government to the whole of the ſtate priſoners; and, in the mean time, Mr. Bond was indulged with a reſpite. After ſome negociation, therefore, in which it was ſaid Mr. Dobbs, a member of the Iriſh parliament, took a very humane and active part, the whole of the ſtate priſoners, including the two O'Connors, Counſellor Emmet, Dr. M'Nevin. and Mr. Neilſon, conſented to give to the government every information in their power, on the condition that they ſhould be at liberty, voluntarily to tranſport themſelves to any country not at war with his Majeſty,—that Mr. Bond ſhould receive a pardon on the ſame condition.—(This gentleman, however, from anxiety and grief, ſurvived his pardon only a few days.)—That no further proſecutions ſhould be carried on upon the ſcore of the conſpiracy, except againſt actual murderers, or ſuch rebels as ſhould hereafter

after be taken in arms. The enlightening and intereſting information communicated by theſe gentlemen, was conſolidated in the report which, on the 21ſt of Auguſt, was preſented to the Iriſh houſe of Commons by Lord Caſtlereagh.

The ſyſtem of moderation and mercy purſued by Lord Cornwallis, appeared peculiarly ſeaſonable at this criſis, and was certainly attended with the happieſt effects. The ſyſtem of military law, and military executions, was relaxed throughout all thoſe parts of the kingdom where the flames of rebellion had been extinguiſhed. In one inſtance, indeed, his Lordſhip gave offence to the more violent partiſans of government, while his conduct had the moſt cordial approbation of every friend of juſtice and humanity.—A yeoman was tried by a court martial, for the murder of a perſon in cold blood, whom he aſſerted to be a rebel. The yeoman was acquitted by the military court, but on grounds ſo unſatisfactory, that his Lordſhip publicly teſtified his diſapprobation of the ſentence, and diſſolved the court martial.

The paſſing a bill of attainder and forfeiture of the eſtates of Lord Fitzgerald, Mr. B. Harvey, and Mr. Grogan, may, to ſome feeling minds, appear a criminal departure from this new and laudable ſyſtem of moderation. Though juſtified by precedent, (and what that is wicked and unjuſt cannot find a precedent?) it may be queſtioned, whether to puniſh the children for the delinquencies of their parents, be perfectly conſiſtent with the mild and equitable ſpirit of that ſyſtem of Britiſh juriſprudence, or not. It certainly had not this aſpect to the celebrated Iriſh advocate, Mr. Curran, who, in pleading againſt this bill, ſtiled it, in his bold and energetic language,—"A meaſure of ſupplementary vengeance, ſeeking repriſals on the grave of the ſuppoſed culprit, and plundering the pittance of the widow, and the cradle of the orphan."

This ſolitary inſtance, however, of ſeverity, was compenſated by a bill of general amneſty, paſſed in the courſe

courſe of the ceſſion, with the ſingle exception of Mr. Napper Tandy, and about thirty others, chiefly fugitives in France. A bill was alſo paſſed for granting a compenſation to ſuch of his Majeſty's loyal ſubjects as had ſuſtained loſſes in their property, in conſequence of the late rebellion; and commiſſaries were named to carry the ſame into effect.

The late diſaſtrous defeats, ſuſtained by the rebels at Vinegar-hill, Enniſcorthy, Wexford, &c. ſo diſheartened them, that they diſembodied, and returned for the moſt part to their own homes to purſue their former occupations. Others, who were more doubtful of obtaining the grace held out by the royal proclamation, retired to the mountainous parts of the counties of Wexford, Wicklow, &c. where, for a while, they carried on a ſort of predatory warfare, but in the courſe of a few weeks were quite ſubdued. However, on the 11th of July a large body attacked the town of Clonard, but were repulſed with the loſs of ſixty men, by Colonel Blake. After this defeat, the corps of the rebels moved towards Longwood, whence they were purſued almoſt to Culmullin, and about thirty were killed in the purſuit. The main body of the rebels after this, took poſt on a hill at Garretſtown, whither General Myers directed his march, but found they had taken advantage of the night to decamp. They at length took a ſtrong poſition in the road to Ardee, where they ſeemed determined to make a ſtand; but as ſoon as the Sunderland regiment arrived with the battalion guns, they fell into confuſion, and were driven into a bog, when great numbers were killed and a quantity of muſkets and pikes taken. After theſe tranſactions, ſeveral bodies of the rebels ſurrendered and laid down their arms, and took the benefit of the amneſty, covenanting only for their chiefs, that they ſhould be permitted to tranſport themſelves to ſome country at peace with Great Britain.—Thoſe who ſtill reſiſted were rather ſmall bodies of banditti, who lurked

ed in the woods and mountains and committed nocturnal depredations, than an embodied force.

It was a circumſtance, happy for the tranquillity of Great Britain and Ireland, that at this alarming criſis, the French government was directed by the moſt unenterpriſing and incapable politicians that Europe had ever ſeen upon the theatre of public affairs. They could not poſſibly have been unacquainted with the ſtate of affairs in Ireland, at this time—Wexford was nigh three weeks in the hands of the inſurgents, and their armies were during the whole of that time, able to keep the field and face his majeſty's forces. Had the French directory embraced the opportunity, and purſued the plan which was laid out for them by Lord Fitzgerald, and others of the malcontents in Ireland; had they riſked a few frigates and light veſſels, with a proper ſupply of officers, arms, and ammunition, with a few troops to keep up the hopes and animate the ſpirits of the inſurgents, Ireland would have been ſevered from Britain, and moſt infallibly loſt forever, and ultimatly Great Britain itſelf; ſince we are purſuaded, that in the ſtate in which Europe than was, both iſlands would have ſtood or fallen together. Providence, however, ordered it better; and ordained, that from this moment, and by this one fatal overſight, Britain, with her reclaimed ſiſter, Ireland, ſhould ſet at defiance the pompous menaces of the Gallic power.

With that kind of after-thought, that wavering policy which always characteriſe weak and inefficient ſtateſmen, the French, in the latter end of Auguſt, detached a ſmall force to the north of Ireland, under the command of General Humbert, who was one of the firſt to enter the Baſtile, upon the ſtorming of that fortreſs on the memorable 14th of July 1789. On the 22d of Auguſt, General Humbert landed at Killala, and, as might be expected, the appearance of a French force excited a general conſternation throughout the kingdom. As is uſual in ſuch emergencies, the numbers of the enemy were greatly exaggerated in the firſt accounts, and

and the invaſion appeared in ſo formidable a light, that the Lord Lieutenant determined to take the field in perſon, at the head of a conſiderable army. But the late inſurgents had received ſo ſevere a check, and the ſubſequent execution of their aſſociates had ſtruck them with ſuch a degree of terror, that very few of them joined the French invaders; and thoſe who did repair to their ſtandard being of the moſt unprincipled diſpoſitions, were ſoon diſguſted; as the ſtrictneſs of the French diſcipline but ill accorded with the licentiouſneſs and diſorder in which the Iriſh inſurgents had been accuſtomed to indulge. The firſt movements of General Humbert proved him a conſummate officer, and worthy of a great command, though the Britiſh which was to impede his progreſs, was not contemptible, he judiciouſly ſaw, that to advance with confidence was eſſential to his future ſucceſs. He proceeded, therefore, without loſs of time, to Caſtlebar, where General Lake was collecting his forces. On the 27th, he attacked the Britiſh general, and forced him to retreat with the loſs of ſix pieces of cannon, and a few men. The force under General Lake has been variouſly ſtated; it was at firſt repreſented as amounting to 6,000 men, which number was afterwards reduced to about 1,000 men. The London Gazette ſays, "General Lake had not yet collected his forces;" yet it is hardly probable, that an officer ſo high in command, ſhould take a ſtation ſo near the enemy with a very contemptible force. Upon obtaining this ſucceſs, the French advanced towards Tuam; but their triumphant progreſs was ſoon terminated; for, on the 7th of September the Marquis Cornwallis came up with them in the vicinity of Caſtlebar, and obliged them to make a retrograde movement before day-break the following morning. The French general made a circuitous march to favour the flight of the rebel Iriſh, by which artful manœuvre the greater part of them eſcaped.

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A column of General Lake's army, however, under the command of Lieutenant-general Crawford, overtook the rearguard of the French at Ballinnamuck, about ſeven o'clock in the morning of the 8th, and ſummoned them to ſurrender; but paying no reſpect to the ſummons, they were attacked by the Britiſh forces, when about 200 of the French infantry threw down their arms, expecting their comrades would follow their example. On General Craddock and ſome other Britiſh officers advancing, the enemy commenced a fire of cannon and muſquetry, which wounded General Craddock, upon which General Lake ordered up a freſh reinforcement, and commenced an attack upon every part of their poſition. The action then laſted half an hour, when the remainder of the Britiſh column making its appearance, the French ſurrendered at diſcretion. General Lake adds, "that the rebels, who fled in all directions, ſuffered ſeverely." The loſs of the Britiſh in this action, was only three men killed, and about ſixteen wounded and miſſing. When the return of the French priſoners was made, the public were ſurpriſed to find, that this formidable hoſt amounted to no more, including officers, than the contemptible number of 844. Three rebel officers, who had aſſumed the title of Generals, fell into the hands of the victors; their names were Blake, Roach, and Teeling; about ninety-three of the inſurgents were made priſoners. It has been ſaid, that four of the rebels, who joined the invaders, were hanged at Caſtlebar, by the command of Humbert, for plundering; and that one of the rebels, who attempted to maſſacre the priſoners, was cut down by the French.

What ſucceſs the French directory could promiſe themſelves, from ſo contemptible a force, is not eaſy to conjecture; but that they did flatter themſelves with ſome effects advantageous to their cauſe, is evident; for, on the 16th of September, a French brig appeared off the little iſland of Rutland, on the north-weſt of Donegal. About eight o'clock the French landed, and with

with them General Rey, and the celebrated Napper Tandy, inveſted with the title of General of Brigade in the French ſervice. They anxiouſly enquired after the fate of the French army which had landed at Killala, and, ſtrange as it may appear, ſeemed diſconcerted on hearing of their defeat. They next diſtributed ſome manifeſtoes among the country people; but the Iriſh had already ſuffered too much to be again ſo eaſily led into inſurrection. Thus diſappointed in every view, they re-embarked, and immediately quitted the Iriſh coaſt.

A more ſerious attempt was, however, ſoon after made by the enemy; but, like all their operations, the expedition was ill-timed, and worſe concerted; it was not made till the alarm was given, and when the Iriſh coaſt was cloſely guarded by the Britiſh navy. In the latter end of September, a ſquadron ſailed from Breſt, conſiſting of one ſhip of the line, the Hoche, and eight frigates, with troops and ammunition for Ireland. On the 11th of October, they were deſcried by the Britiſh ſquadron, under Sir John Borlaſe Warren, which conſiſted of the Canada, Robuſt, Foudroyant, Magnanime, Æthalion, Melampus, and Amelia; and which, in the latter part of the action, were joined by the Anſon. At half paſt ſeven, on the morning of the 12th, the action commenced; and at eleven the Hoche, after a gallant defence, ſtruck: the frigates then made ſail from the Britiſh ſquadron, and a ſignal for a general chace was immediately made by the Admiral. After a running fight of five hours, three of the frigates were captured in the courſe of the day, and three others afterwards became prizes. Thus the whole ſquadron, two frigates excepted, fell into the hands of the Britiſh; and the hopes of the French, as well as of the malcontents in Ireland, were completely defeated.

Among the priſoners taken in the Hoche, was the famous and unfortunate Theobald Wolfe Tone, ſo long conſidered as the moſt able and active negociator among the Iriſh fugitives at Paris, and as the great adviſer of moſt

moſt of the meaſures purſued by his rebellious countrymen. He was brought to Dublin and tried by a court martial there; and in a moſt manly defence, attempted neither to deny, nor excuſe the offence. The plea on which he reſted was, that of being a denizen of France, and an officer in the ſervice of the republic. When he found this plea over-ruled, he requeſted he might die like a ſoldier, and not as a felon; and be ſhot, according to military uſage, rather than be hanged. The court, however, did not accede to his requeſt, and the unhappy delinquent cut his throat in priſon. The wound was at firſt ſuppoſed not to be mortal; but, after languiſhing a ſhort time, it terminated his exiſtence. On the morning after he had made the attempt upon his life, Mr. Curran exerted his great talents in moving the King's Bench for a habeas corpus, upon this ground, —"That court martials had no juriſdiction over ſubjects not in military ſervice, while the court of King's Bench was ſitting." The plea was, after a full hearing, allowed by the court, and the writ was ordered to be made out immediately; but on the arrival of the meſſenger at the priſon, the unhappy man was found not in a condition to be moved with ſafety. The writ was, however, obeyed by the military, and the execution, which was to have taken place that morning, was ſuſpended.

Mr. Tone almoſt ſurvived the rebellion of which he may be conſidered as the original projector, and chiefly the founder of that ſociety which gave it exiſtence. The few companies of rebels, who lurked in the woods and mountains, totally diſpirited by the ill ſucceſs of their allies, and dreading the approach of winter, ſucceſſively laid down their arms. Holt was the laſt of their chieftains who ſurrendered to government. He was of low extraction, but a man of great ſpirit and enterpriſe. In the mountainous parts of Wicklow, he maintained, notwithſtanding the failure of his confederates, a deſultory warfare till after the defeat of the French under Humbert. It is believed that he at laſt

made terms with government; but the utmoſt he could obtain was to ſave his life, by relinquiſhing his native ſoil for ever.

In this ever-to-be-lamented conteſt, it is ſaid, in a calculation tolerably correct, that upwards of 30,000 perſons loſt their lives, independent of thoſe who were wounded, and of thoſe who were tranſported, or ſent on board the fleet. Whatever might have been the occaſional, or even unjuſtifiable ſeverities exerciſed upon ſuſpected individuals, we muſt, in candour, acquit the Iriſh government of the charge of having "goaded the people into rebellion." This was evidently the reſult of a deep conſpiracy, laid by a few ambitious and diſaffected perſons, who inſidiouſly wrought upon the paſſions of the lower orders of the catholics, to promote their own deſtructive deſigns. Undoubtedly, to prevent ſimilar exceſſes, the moſt effectual and laudable means would be to enlighten the maſs of the people with uſeful learning, and take every poſſible method to ameliorate the condition of the lower orders of ſociety in that country.

But with all this, it cannot be denied, even by the moſt ſtrenuous friends of government, that in the exertions to cruſh this dangerous inſurrection, the moſt unjuſtifiable exceſſes were committed by the military; and were generally ſanctioned by the deciſions of courts martial. Lord Moira's account of theſe horrid violations of juſtice, and outrages on humanity, ought to have at leaſt cauſed ſome enquiry to be made, previous to the immuring in dungeons many decent and reſpectable perſons, who were thus wantonly torn from their families, deprived of all the ſweets and uſefulneſs of life, and all occaſioned by the dark and inſidious information of ſome miſcreant in the character of a ſpy and an officious informer. It was found in many caſes, that to gratify malevolence, revenge, and every deviliſh paſſion, a perſon had no more to do than to delate the object of his villainy as an *United Iriſhman*, and without further ceremony he was conveyed

veyed to a priſon. Thus a knave often paid his juſt debts, or gratified his malice or revenge.

It was reported (and although publiſhed in moſt newſpapers, the fact was not contradicted) that as a number of innoffenſive people were employed in raiſing potatoes in their fields, a party of ſoldiers, taking them for United Iriſhmen, inſtantly fired upon them, and murdered in cold blood ſeveral of theſe induſtrious people, and wounded many more! In violation of the primary principle of juſtice, ſelf-defence, on hundreds of occaſions, many inoffenſive perſons, being delated by theſe deteſtable informers, were inhumanly piquetted, cruelly flogged, or half-hanged! and all this with the deſign of extorting a confeſſion to criminate themſelves, or their neareſt relations and acquaintances. —And what is truly *Iriſh*, ſome of the members of the new Imperial parliament, from that country, when thoſe atrocities came under diſcuſſion by Meſſrs. Sheridan, Tierney, and others, in great vehemence roſe and denied *that theſe were tortures!*

They appeared, however, in another light to the amiable and humane Lord Cornwallis, who, with laudable magnanimity, aboliſhed theſe barbarous and diſgraceful courts martial, expelled informers from his preſence, and turned over ſuppoſed offenders to legal juriſdiction, ſo that every accuſed perſon had a fair and impartial trial for his life. This conciliating and manly proceeding adopted by the Viceroy, tended more to quell the inſurrection, than could have been effected by all the military implements of death in the Tower of London.

But the failure of the inſurgents was principally owing to the weakneſs, diſunion, and convulſions which at this period took place in their executive, and even in the legiſlative branches of government, which were convulſed in the extreme. But of their contentions and fierce animoſities, which diſtracted them, we will not trouble our readers with any detailed account; we ſhall only obſerve, that they luckily prevented them

from

from ſending any efficient force into the diſtracted country of Ireland.

We ſhall now turn our attention to the continent, where more active ſcenes preſent themſelves.

We had curſorily, in the preceding pages, traced the rapid progreſs of Bonaparte, and the other victorious French generals; we ſhall now be a little more circumſtantial in detailing ſome of theſe accounts of events highly intereſting and important.

We had traced the French armies to the capital of Carinthia, of which they were now maſters, and of the greater part of the province, as alſo of the Tyrol, of Carniola, the Frioul, Iſtria, and in ſhort of all the territory from the ſea to the country over which they had marched, and almoſt in the heart of the Auſtrian dominions. At Clagenfurt, Bonaparte publiſhed another proclamation to the inhabitants of Carinthia, as he had before done to thoſe of Goritia. He informed them—"That his preſent appearance amongſt them was the act of the court of Vienna; the miniſters of which had betrayed the empire, by obſtinately refuſing to liſten to any terms of peace, or to acknowledge the exiſtence of the French republic."

He declared to them, "that the price of their neutrality in the preſent conteſt, ſhould be an exemption from all contribution; and that the taxes which they paid to the Emperor, ſhould be collected only to pay for proviſions, and repair the damages neceſſarily attendant on the march of an army."

Previous to this proclamation's being publiſhed, Bonaparte, who, in a campaign of about twenty days, had defeated the Auſtrians in ten pitched battles, had ſcaled the mountains which were deemed almoſt inacceſſible, who had reduced the army of his retreating rival to half of its original number, and was now within a few days march of the ſeat of empire, wrote to the Archduke (as we have already obſerved), exhorting him, by divers conſiderations, "to reflect on the circumſtances in which they were mutually placed, and

to

to interpoſe his influence to determine the court of Vienna, to put an end to the horrors of war, and the further effuſion of blood."

The anſwer of the Archduke was cool and unconciliating. He obſerved "that it was not his buſineſs to examine into the cauſes, nor to ſeek to end the quarrels of belligerent nations; and that not being authorized by the Emperor to enter into any treaty, that Bonaparte muſt not deem it unreaſonable if he ſhould decline entering with him into any negociation for which he muſt wait for ſuperior orders; as the object was of high importance, and not within the reach of his inſtructions."

It is evident from this anſwer, although containing many polite expreſſions of high regard and perſonal reſpect for the French general, that the court of Vienna entertained hope of extricating itſelf from the danger that ſeemed to menace it, from the approach of the republican armies. The Archduke had taken his poſitions between Judemburg and Newmark, waiting the arrival of freſh troops. The city of Vienna, in the mean while, was thrown into the greateſt conſternation. The dread of ſeeing the hoſtile army of France, under the walls of Vienna, had led the government to the reſolution of arming the people in a maſs. Many thouſands of people were employed in raiſing new works around the city. The merchants and ſtudents of the univerſity, formed themſelves into companies; the peaſants poured in from various quarters to enroll themſelves; the Princes and Nobles took arms, and mingled their names with thoſe of the common people, and the court by condeſcending proclamations, exerted themſelves to animate the multitude to take an active part in the common cauſe.

But the hopes of the people were not alike ſanguine—the rich drew out their money from the bank, which found itſelf unable to anſwer the run made upon it. Meaſures were taken by government to ſtop the emigration of the rich inhabitants, as well as to prevent the

the too great influx of people who were flying from the invaded provinces. Foreigners of every age and ſex were ordered to quit Vienna in three days; and although the government endeavoured by its edicts to inſpire confidence, precautions were taken to remove the treaſure and precious effects of the ſtate, into Hungary, to diminiſh at leaſt the ſpoils, if they could not prevent the triumph, of the conqueror.

Bonaparte finding that the cabinet would liſten to no conciliating meaſures, ordered his army to advance. By a maſterly manœuvre the junction of the main army with Laudohn's diviſion was completely defeated, and which had been a main object of the plans of the Archduke.

By the continued victorious march of the French army, and their arrival at Murh, within as ſhort a diſtance from Vienna as the united armies of Pruſſia and Auſtria had been in the campaign of 1792, the court of Vienna were now ſeriouſly alarmed, which influenced them to diſpatch two general officers to Bonaparte, to requeſt formally a ſuſpenſion of arms. By theſe negociators, the Emperor affected to declare, that he had nothing more at heart than to ſee the termination of hoſtilities, which had ſo long deſolated both countries, and having duly conſidered the letter which the French general addreſſed to the Archduke, had ſent theſe confidential gentlemen to confer with him on the ſubject —Bonaparte in anſwer to this note, obſerved, that a ſuſpenſion could not but be diſadvantageous to his army, conſidering the ſituation of both armies at that time; but ſince this ſuſpenſion was an opening to peace, ſo deſirable and ſo neceſſary to both nations, he acceded to the Archduke's requeſt, limiting the term to ten days, during which he expected meaſures would be purſued to attain this deſirable object. At the ſame time, he prudently required poſſeſſion of the fortreſs of Gratz, Leoben, and other poſts on the frontiers of Hungary, and from thence to the Adriatic, in order to ſtrengthen his poſition, with regard to the object of his march

march, if the negociation, during the ſuſpenſion, ſhould not ſucceed.

Although Bonaparte had hitherto purſued through Italy and Germany an army of flying troops; and although he was within a few days march of Vienna, and probably on the point of overturning the imperial throne, which had ſo long ruled or balanced the deſtinies of Europe, yet he could not diſſemble to himſelf the extreme difficulties, if not imminent dangers, to which he was expoſed. His rapid marches acroſs ravins and precipices, and over mountains, where no traces of roads exiſted, had compelled him to leave behind the greater part of his heavy artillery; while his army, from the rigours of the ſeaſon, and the conſtant ſtate of action in which they had been kept, had very ſenſibly diminiſhed.

To reach Vienna by the ſpeedieſt direction, the French army had to paſs the mountains of Styria, which riſe for a long extent from the Murh, almoſt within ſight of this ſeat of empire. Theſe mountains, eaſily defended by the retreating army, and the ſuccours which were pouring in from all quarters, would have rendered the remainder of his march to the imperial capital extremely difficult. Theſe dangers ariſing from the enemy before him, had been well weighed by Bonaparte. By daring courage, and the boldeſt efforts, he had, in the ſpace of a month, led his army to conqueſts which the moſt ardent imagination had ſcarcely ventured to contemplate; but he made no calculations, on the outſet of his expedition, for other enemies than thoſe with whom he was at open hoſtility, and therefore had not provided reſources. In accepting, therefore, the offers of the armiſtice, and in ſigning, within the limited time, the preliminaries of peace, Bonaparte gave, perhaps, as ſolid a proof of his talents as a ſtateſman, as he had hitherto done of his valour as a ſoldier.

Mean while the Imperial and French armies had commenced hoſtilities on the banks of the Rhine.

Both

Both of theſe armies had been conſiderably weakened by the reinforcements which had been ſent off to the reſpective armies of Italy, and which had been in continued action during the winter. The return of Laudohn into the Tyrol, the march of Alvinzi by Fiuma and Trieſte, and the hoſtile preparations making by the Venetians, each of which movements menaced with danger the army of Bonaparte, then entangled in the mountains of Styria, and which had influenced him to ſign the preliminaries of peace, led the directory alſo to order the French generals Hoche and Moreau to make the moſt rapid movements, and paſs, with their reſpective armies, into the circles of Franconia and Suabia, to cauſe a diverſion of the Auſtrian armies, or form a junction with Bonaparte.

The retreat of the Auſtrians beyond the Lahn enabled the various diviſions of the French army to croſs the Rhine without moleſtation. Here they found the Auſtrians ſtrongly entrenched and fortified on both banks of the Lahn; but as General Wernecht, the commander in chief of the Auſtrian forces, felt that his army was not equal to a long or vigorous reſiſtance, he demanded a further prolongation of the armiſtice, artfully alledging that the preliminaries of peace had been ſigned; but as he refuſed to comply with the conditions which General Hoche exacted, which were the delivery of ſome ſtrong fortreſſes, the negociation dropped, and the two armies prepared for action. The attack began with a briſk cannonade. The whole of the French line was ſoon in motion; the infantry, ſupported by the fire of the light artillery, and by the huſſars and light dragoons, poured down with their uſual ardour on the Auſtrian entrenchments. The centre of the line of redoubts was carried by the commander in chief. Lefevre, who led on the right wing of the French, broke through the left of the imperialiſts, whilſt the right fled before General Championet, who commanded the left wing of the French army.

The

The Auſtrian general during the night retreated beyond the Lahn, leaving behind him the artillery of his redoubts, and 4,000 priſoners. The French continued the purſuit, and came up with the Auſtrians at Ukerath and Altenkirchen, where they had taken ſtrong poſitions. The Auſtrians were again routed, with great loſs, by General Lefevre; whilſt General Ney marched rapidly to Dierdorf, where he found the reſerve of the Auſtrian army, conſiſting of 6,000 men, whoſe attack he ſuſtained, with a diviſion of 500 huſſars, till the infantry came up, when he drove them from their poſitions with conſiderable loſs. The left of the French army croſſed the Upper Lahn, and took poſſeſſion of Wetzlaar; and, forcing the Auſtrians to croſs the Nidder, purſued them to the gates of Frankfort.

General Moreau, in the mean while, who commanded the army of the Rhine and Moſelle, which was cantoned along the Rhine, made preparations to croſs the river at Straſburg. The want of pontoons to effect his deſign, was in ſome meaſure compenſated by the decreaſe of the waters, which permitted the French to make two bridges from the main land to a part of the iſlands in the Rhine; and other parts of the river were fordable, from Briſach to the mouth of the Murg. The centre of the army ſtationed at Straſburg, under General Duhem, were ordered to make the firſt real efforts, whilſt falſe attacks were made, in various places, to divert the attention of the Auſtrians. At the mouth of the river Ill, in ſight of the oppoſing army, was moored the little fleet, compoſed of the boats which had previouſly been put in requiſition. Part of this diviſion, notwithſtanding the heavy fire from the oppoſite ſide, made good their landing; and, having taken poſſeſſion of an iſland, from which they had driven the Auſtrians, ſent back their boats to bring over the other troops. During this manœuvre, the French, expoſed to the Auſtrian artillery, loſt conſiderable numbers of men; but General Vandamme ſucceeded in keeping his poſition on the banks, till a greater number of troops had landed, who

were immediately formed into columns, and led on by General Duhem to the attack of the village of Diersheim, where the Auſtrians had aſſembled their forces. In this attack they ſucceeded, after a long and bloody conflict, which gave time for the landing of the remainder of the infantry; but this was not effected till near noon. To protect the cavalry and light artillery, which had not yet croſſed the river, the French army took ſuch poſitions as prevented the Auſtrians from offering any conſiderable reſiſtance to their paſſage.

In the mean while, the body of troops with which the French had been engaged, were reinforced by diviſions which had marched from their cantonments at Offenburg and Stolhoffen, and which gave the Auſtrians a conſiderable ſuperiority. Thus augmented, they attacked with ſo much impetuoſity the village of Diersheim, that it was ſoon in a great part deſtroyed.

The entrenchments which General Deſaix had thrown up were for ſome time in the power of the aſſailants, who were, however, after a deſperate and bloody conflict, repulſed.

Night ſeparated the combatants, but the attack began with greater impetuoſity next day; when the Auſtrians, being reinforced by freſh troops, attacked the village, and made conſiderable havoc among the French. The republicans, however, though compelled to give way on the preceding part of the day, having alſo received a reinforcement of cavalry and artillery, formed themſelves in a line of battle, and began to act offenſively in their turn. The combat was not of long duration. The Auſtrians, weakened by the conflicts of that and the preceding day, and diſheartened at the enterprize of the French, fled before the charge of the bayonet, and left the republicans maſters of their whole park of artillery, of Kehl, and the ſurrounding poſts and villages. Between four and five thouſand priſoners fell into their hands, among whom were ſeveral officers of rank, and great numbers were killed on both ſides. The French army continued the purſuit of the Imperialiſts,

Imperialiſts, who were retreating towards the Danube, and were again beginning their march into Germany, when news arrived of the ſigning of the preliminaries of peace by the Archduke and Bonaparte.

The paſſage of the Rhine, in the face of the Imperial army, was the laſt exploit of the French during this deſtructive campaign, and added another diſtinguiſhed laurel to thoſe which Moreau had gathered from his famous retreat the preceding ſummer.

The news of peace reached alſo the army of the Sambre and the Meuſe, whilſt they were engaged before the gates of Frankfort, which General Wernecht was defending againſt the aſſailants in vain. The grateful ſound was proclaimed in the midſt of the ſcene of carnage; the roar of the cannon was interrupted by the ſhouts of tumultuous joy, and the contending armies, both officers and men, throwing aſide the blood-ſtained weapons, threw themſelves into each others arms, and forgot the ferocity of the ſoldier in the embrace of friendſhip and peace. The ſignature of the preliminaries of peace diffuſed a general joy throughout France. The extent of the preliminaries was at firſt little known. The directory, in their meſſage to the councils, and in their ſpeeches to the officers who preſented them with the various trophies of victory, which the armies had gathered in the courſe of this ſhort campaign, gave no further information on the ſubject then that the baſis of the preliminaries was the renunciation of the Belgic provinces, and the formation of a republic in Lombardy. Some were loud in their expreſſions of regret that Bonaparte had not ſigned them till he ſhould have reached Vienna; but the wiſer and greater number were thankful that peace was reſtored in any ſhape; but when the circumſtances attending the preliminary paciſication were known, and the imminent danger into which a further delay on the part of Bonaparte would have led his army, the murmurs were converted into the warmeſt approbation of the political conduct of their brave and prudent General.

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The proud, but weak republic of Venice had incurred the diſpleaſure of the victorious Bonaparte, and that commander had no ſooner terminated the conteſt with the Emperor than he bent all his views towards that obnoxious ſtate.—It is not improbable, however, that their wealth, and the facility of conquering them, might be a leading inducement. To give a colour to this proceeding, the French directory alledge, that, during the whole conteſt, the Venetian government evinced a manifeſt partiality towards the coalition, and an utter averſion to the republic of France. We ſhall ſhortly give an abſtract of the reaſons for their invaſion of that ariſtocratic ſtate.

"The only power in Europe (ſay they) of which Venice had any real dread was the houſe of Auſtria. The wary policy of the ſenate, which had balanced the pretenſions of every other ſtate, could not keep them ſecure from the encrachments of that ambitious houſe; and therefore, although they beheld with pain the rapid ſucceſſes which attended the French, on their firſt entrance into Italy, yet with pleaſure they alſo ſaw thoſe early victories had been followed by entire defeats; and in the preſent caſe, little doubt was entertained, but that the revolutionary torrent deſcending from the Alps would diſſipate in the plains of Lombardy.

"An adherence to the coalition (they add) notwithſtanding the invaſion of Italy, was judged to be the ſafeſt policy.—When Marſhal Beaulieu fled from the French in the campaign of 1769 he found a welcome reception in the Venetian ſtates, which not only openly protected him, but ſuffered him quietly to take poſſeſſion of Peſchiera, built on the lake of Guarda—Bonaparte at that time informed the ſenate of Venice, that for this unfriendly conduct he ſhould purſue his enemies wherever he could find them; intimating at the ſame time, that the ties of long friendſhip which had ſubſiſted between the two countries, would lead the French armies to obſerve the moſt exact diſcipline, and pay

pay every due reſpect to the laws and government of the country.

"With the duplicity, as well as diſguiſed hoſtility of the Venetian ſtate towards France, Bonaparte was well acquainted; but hoped that the forces he had left in Lombardy would have been ſufficient to convince the ſenate of the danger of provoking further the reſentment of France, and prevent open hoſtilities from taking place. An inſurrection againſt the French had already broken out in the province of Bergano, the diſtricts of Breſſau, and the valley of Suabia, the progreſs of which was ſtopped by the prudence and activity of General Augerau; but when the news arrived of Marſhall Laudohn's progreſs in the Tyrol, which had been attended with ſome ſlight advantages over the French, and alſo of General Alvinzi's march into Italy, by Carniola, in the rear of Bonaparte's army, the report was univerſally circulated, that the French were on the point of laying down their arms, and that nothing was wanting to render the victory deciſive, but a general movement and co-operation, on the part of the loyal ſubjects of the Venetian government.

"The influence of the prieſts and nobles was ſufficient to blow into a flame, the inſurrection which had been ſecretly preparing. A cruſade againſt the French as regicides and atheiſts was publicly preached by the prieſts, as a work of ſacred duty. The religious ſeaſon of Eaſter was pointed out as well fitted for the execution of this pious labour. Fifty thouſand peaſants immediately aſſembled, and demanded from their governors the inſtruments of vengeance. The ſenate, indeed ſeemed averſe; but its agents inſtructed the multitude where magazines were placed; the inſurgents were ſoon equipped and formed into regiments under the direction of regular officers employed in the ſervice of the ſtate. The call to arms, in the name of the people, now became general; every inhabitant, under the pain of death, was ordered to range himſelf under the colours of his canton; and as ſoon as the diſpoſition

to

to inſurrection aſſumed this conſiſtent appearance, the body-guard of the government, and the army of the Sclavonians, joined themſelves alſo to the army of the inſurgents; and after attacking the French at Vincenza, Padua, and other parts of the Venetian territory, and putting to death all thoſe whom they found in Verona, together with the ſick in the hoſpitals, they beſieged, during eight days, the remainder who had taken refuge in the three caſtles of the city.

"The news of this inſurrection reached Bonaparte whilſt he was purſuing the Anſtrians beyond Judemburg. He inſtantly wrote to the members of the Venetian ſenate, that he was well informed of the full meaſure of their perfidy, which they had now put into execution. He repreſented to them, that, notwithſtanding their diſſimulation, the revolt had been prepared by them; and the cry of the multitude, 'Death to the French!' was the effect of their ſuggeſtions. He warned them, that their atrocious perfidy would meet with its due puniſhment; and that unleſs they took meaſures to diſperſe the inſurgents, and put into his hands the inſtigators of the murders which had been committed on the French, he ſhould inſtantly declare war againſt them, and would not ceaſe his vengeance till he had annihilated their government. He informed them that his aid-de-camp was the bearer of his propoſition, peace or war; for the choice of which he gave them twenty-four hours to determine.

"The Doge, in reply to this letter, obſerved, that the members of government were overwhelmed with affliction at the receipt of Bonaparte's letter. He repreſented, that the ſenate had ever entertained the firmeſt reſolutions of preſerving peace with the French republic—that the preſent inſurrection ought not to be conſidered as any infringement in that neutrality, as the people who were ſincerely attached to their government, had only flown to arms to ſuppreſs an unexpected revolt which had broken out in certain towns

—that

that the General's demand reſpecting the delivery of the murderers ſhould be complied with.

" In the mean while, the ſenate had iſſued a proclamation, in which they repreſented, that repoſing on the loyalty and impartiality of their conduct to the belligerent powers, they had judged the malevolent inſinuations which had been raiſed, reſpecting the ſincerity of their pacific intentions, unworthy of their notice. In this public act they diſavowed a proclamation hoſtile to the French, which had been aſcribed to one of the officers of government; and adviſed their faithful ſubjects to be perſuaded, that the harmony and friendſhip between them and the French nation were in no manner changed.—This evaſive anſwer, given by the ſenate to Bonaparte, was a deciſive proof (the French alledged) of the determined hoſtility of the ſenate of Venice, &c."

On the 20th of April, a diviſion of 25,000 men encamped on the ſea-ſhore, within ſight of Venice, whilſt the diviſion which had taken poſſeſſion of Verona, purſued and diſarmed the fugitive inſurgents in the various towns of the ſtates. Whilſt the government remained trembling at Venice, Bonaparte publiſhed a manifeſto at Palma-Nuova, in which he enjoined the French ambaſſador to quit Venice, and made a formal declaration of war againſt the government; at the ſame time holding out the palm of peace on condition that the three inquiſitors of ſtate, and ten of the principal ſenators, who he ſuppoſed were the chief inſtruments in the murder of the French ſoldiers, ſhould be delivered into his hands. Theſe conditions, hard and imperious as they were, could no longer be a ſubject of deliberation with the ſenate, whoſe authority was ſo totally annihilated, that they had only to receive the commands of the conqueror. Sufficient time, however, was given, poſſibly with the connivance of the French general, for ſuch as were marked out as the objects of reſentment, to eſcape, ſince ſuch as were put into his power ſuffered no public puniſhment. The governors had abdicated their

their ſeats previouſly to the entry of the French army (May 12th), and had entruſted the proviſional authority to thirty ſenators, who had decreed that the democratical form of government ſhould be reſtored, ſuch as it exiſted before the revolution, at the cloſe of the thirteenth century. Soon after the French had taken poſſeſſion, a new municipality was inſtalled, who formally proclaimed the diſſolution of the old government, leaving the formation of a new ſyſtem to circumſtances which ſhould hereafter ariſe from the will, or convenience, of the conquering party.

The capture of Venice, into which a hoſtile army had never before entered, put the French in poſſeſſion of a treaſure highly important to the republic, which was the naval ſtores, and the vaſt ſtores of every kind which their extenſive magazines and arſenals contained. The French alſo made an addition to their territories in the Adriatic and Archipelago, moſt of which are valuable, not only for the command which they give of thoſe ſeas, but for the production which they give to commerce.

The fall of Venice was immediately followed by that of Geneva, and the ſtate, under the direction of Bonaparte, reſumed its ancient name, and was now called the Ligurian republic.——A conſtitution, which like that of their Ciſalpine neighbours, was proviſionally adopted from the form of the French government, with whom the Genoeſe populace pretended to renew their treaty, whilſt in reality they were only to be conſidered as conquered ſubjects of France. French money, French policy, and French power, effected all theſe revolutions, and totally ſubverted the ancient conſtitutions of theſe once powerful republics.

Mean while, although the negociations between Lord Malmeſbury and the French negociators, at Liſle, had totally failed in the great object of concluding a general peace; yet the negociations with the Emperor were attended, ſeemingly, with better ſucceſs. The negociation was dragged out for ſeveral months, at Udiore,

and

and many civilities had paſſed between the French and Auſtrian generals: the Emperor's troops took quiet poſſeſſion of Iſtria and Venetian Dalmatia.

The Emperor now finding that it was vain to expect, from ſome favourable turn of affairs, an opportunity of renewing hoſtilities with hopes of ſucceſs, found it neceſſary formally to accede to the deſired pacification. This celebrated treaty took place at a village named Campo Formio, the 17th of October.

By this treaty, the Emperor ceded to the French his extenſive poſſeſſions of the fertile countries of the Netherlands, and confirmed to them alſo the poſſeſſion of the iſlands in the Levant, which belonged at that time to the Venetians, ſuch as Corfu, Zante, Cephalonia, Cerigo, and the iſlands adjacent. Iſlands, immortalized in ſong by Homer, as being the ſcenes of the wanderings of his hero Ulyſſes. The Emperor likewiſe ceded the whole of his dominions in Italy, and acknowledged the Ciſalpine republic, confirming the poſſeſſion of the additional territory lately belonging to the Pope, and which now formed part of that republic. Theſe were mortifying conditions to the Emperor, and which raiſed the cry of all the old governments in Europe againſt the rapacity of the French; who, however, paid no regard either to the remonſtrances or the menaces of theſe debilitated, inefficient powers. As ſome compenſation for thoſe terrible ſacrifices, the French republic conſented to yield to the Emperor the poſſeſſion of Venice, and the whole of the Venetian territory, excepting the iſlands above-mentioned, paſſing in a line from the Tyrol, through the lake Guarda, along the Adige to the Po. This treaty, however, was concluded by the Emperor, only as King of Hungary and Bohemia, the pacification of the empire with the French republic, was referred to a congreſs to be held at Radſtadt, compoſed of plenipotentiaries only from theſe reſpective powers.

The eccleſiaſtical Princes on the left of the Rhine, and Venice, were by this treaty, made the ſacrifices.

But the right which the French aſſumed in thus diſpoſing of the Venetian territories, has been juſtly the ſubject of ſerious animadverſion. Not only had the people of thoſe ſtates indulged the idea, that they had exchanged their tyrannical oligarchical regimen for the bleſſings of a free government, but they had named, in almoſt every commune, proviſionary authorities, and taken every previous ſtep for the formation of a republic founded on equal rights. It was therefore with burſts of indignation and of deſpair that the partiſans of liberty heard of that article of the treaty, which conſigned them to a more ſevere deſpotiſm, than even that from which they had hoped to have eſcaped forever; and in the firſt tranſports of their rage, at ſeeing their hopes blaſted, reſiſtance againſt a double tyranny that betrayed and enchained them, was proclaimed as a ſacred duty.

Bonaparte, to his honour, it is ſaid, yielded with extreme reluctance to this ſacrifice, viewing it as a violation of honour and of juſtice; but the rapacious directory, to whoſe mean policy he in this inſtance ſacrificed his laurels, ſhewed themſelves as little mindful of the liberty of others, as of that of their own people—that warlike and political General had not then arrived (as he has now) at the zenith of his dictatorial power.

The Britiſh government was now the only efficient member that remained of the famous coalition, compoſed of almoſt the whole powers of Europe. The influence of the cabinet of St. James's, however, was ſufficiently ſtrong to keep the feeble kingdom of Portugal within the limits of the coalition party. An embaſſador from this government had been employed in Paris, during the ſummer, in negotiating a ſeparate peace; and the portugueſe had actually concluded a treaty on the 10th of Auguſt, which was to be ratified in two months; one of the articles in which was, an obligation on her faithful Majeſty not to admit more than ſix armed veſſels at one time, into her ports.

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This treaty not being ratified within the time prescribed, the directory, by a declaration, the preamble of which ſtated, "that inſteed of obſerving the above-mentioned article, the Queen of Portugal had put the forts and principal ports in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh," declared it null and void, and ordered the embaſſador M. D'Aranjo to quit the republic. The embaſſador not complying with this injunction, but having become the dupe of ſome diplomatic intriguers, through whoſe pretended influence with the French government he had been flattered with the hopes of renewing the negociation, was ſent as a ſtate priſoner to the priſon of the Temple; the directory thus giving a demonſtration that they were as little attentive to the law of nations, as to thoſe inſtituted by their own convention.

It was, however, the fate of the French republic, from whatever cauſe it proceeded, to find its allies not only ineffective in every point where their aid was required, but always unfortunate enough to afford eſſential aid and benefit to the common enemy. Spain, inſtead of having invaded Portugal, had by the terrible defeat of her navy, by Lord St. Vincent, ſwelled the naval liſt of the enemy. Holland, after ſeeing herſelf ſucceſſively ſtripped of her richeſt poſſeſſions in the Indies, encreaſed alſo at this period the triumph and force of the Britiſh at home, in loſing the greater part of her navy, by the deciſive victory of Admiral Duncan.

At this period, the French republic concluded a treaty with another ex-member of the coalition, the King of Sardinia, by forming an alliance offenſive and defenſive; the baſis of which was the furniſhing 9,000 troops, and ten pieces of cannon, in exchange for the friendſhip and protection of the republic. This price of protection was inconſiderable, when compared with another condition of the treaty which was far more ſingular. The King of Sardinia had juſt quelled a popular inſurrection, of a moſt dangerous nature, in his ſtates, an

an insurrection founded on the pretext of the rights of man: the insurgents had been defeated, and severely punished; but as power might not always be attended with the same good fortune, the guarantee of the *status quo*, with respect to the Piedmontese government, was required from the French. It is also remarkable, that one of the articles of peace, with another ex-member of the coalition, the Emperor, bound the republic to guarantee the internal tranquillity of the Austrian dominions! Whether it be more extraordinary, in these august monarchs to have enjoined the French by treaty to protect their own states against the progress of republican principles, or in these republicans to have had the complaisance to consent to this singular engagement, it is, perhaps, difficult to decide.—There is a flagrant inconsistency, however, somewhere.

The peace concluded with the Emperor, was followed by an arret of the directory of France, of a very different tendency with regard to England. In a short proclamation, addressed to the armies, the directory observed, "that although so much had been done, so many Kings conquered, so many people set free, and the republic itself established by the valour of its arms, yet the country expected still one more sacrifice; since the enemy, who had been the original cause of all the horrors and miseries which they had suffered, both from foreign and civil war, remained yet to be crushed, and that the safety of the republic was endangered, so long as the English government existed." This strange preamble was followed by two resolutions, stating, that an army should be assembled on the coasts of the channel, under the name of the *Army of England*; and that Bonaparte should be appointed commander in chief.

On another occasion, they discovered, in a proclamation issued at this time, a degree of haughtiness, which was justly reprobated by all sober and dispassionate men, who consider the very mutable condition of human affairs. Yet in this hostile manifesto to England, they artfully kept up the line of distinction between

between the government and the people of England; and while the cabinet of St. James's was treated in terms of unmeaſured contempt, the people were ſignalized as objects of reſpect and attention. The *great nation* was held forth as the avenger of the world; and, relying on the aſſiſtance which would be found in the diſcontented of every party, who were repreſented as either groaning under their chains, or ſtruggling for releaſe, the ſpeedieſt, the moſt worthy of the various means that were preſented of humbling that tyranny, was the march of the army of England to dictate at London the terms of peace!

Happily they could only threaten this "ſea-girt iſle."—And, had not a watery bulwark interpoſed, it is not unlikely they would have realized their menaces.

But other ſtates, more acceſſible, and liable to aggreſſion, were the objects of their ambition; and Switzerland ſeemed to be marked out as the firſt victim. To give countenance to the intended hoſtilities againſt that country, they aſſerted, "that Switzerland had, during the war, been the conſtant ſcene of counter-revolutionary intrigue, and that every protection had been openly afforded to the avowed enemies of the French republic, particularly in the catholic cantons, Soleure and Fribourg, lying on the confines of France, and above all at Berne, the moſt powerful canton of the Helvetic body." The firſt attack made upon their independency, was demanding from the Helvetic confederacy the expulſion of Mr. Wickham, the Engliſh ambaſſador, from their territories. The ſenate of Berne had ſcarcely time to diſpatch their meſſengers to Paris, to remonſtrate with the directory, when Mr. Wicknam ſaved the ſenate further embarraſſment by producing his letters of recall.

The deputies who were ſent from Berne to remonſtrate, were ordered to quit Paris in a limited time, and their conference with the members of government led them to no flattering concluſions, with reſpect even to that

that external friendſhip which had hitherto exiſted between the cantons and the French republic.

The pacification of the French republic with the empire, had been adjourned, by the treaty of Campo Formio, to the congreſs of Radſtadt. The meeting of this congreſs was repreſented as big with the fate of Europe. It was aſſerted that an aſſemblage of the repreſentatives of ſuch high and mighty powers, intereſted, or connected with the empire, would form an epoch much more remarkable in hiſtory than that of the famous treaty of Weſtphalia; that the foundation of a laſting peace would be laid by the further ſanction about to be given by the French republic, under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria, to the integrality of the empire, agreeable to the preliminaries of peace ſigned at Leoben; and that the pretenſions of the French would be checked or awed by ſuch an union of will and power, if any diſpoſitions of further aggrandizement were diſcovered. The plenipotentiaries from various powers had aſſembled already, whilſt Bonaparte, who had waited in Italy till the mutual ratification of the treaty with the Emperor had taken place, was employed in planning or arranging the governments which he had formed; the Ciſalpine republic had taken the French conſtitution for their model and guide.—Before the French commander left them, he obſerved to them, "that they were the firſt example in hiſtory of a people who had been free without factions, revolutions, or commotions; that as France had given them liberty, they ought to learn how to preſerve it;—that being, next to France, the richeſt and moſt populous republic in Europe, they ſhould learn how to preſerve that liberty, by becoming worthy of their high deſtiny, in making only wiſe and moderate laws, and executing them with force and energy, by favouring the ſpread of knowledge, and reſpecting the rights of conſcience."

Bonaparte alſo obſerved, to the new Ciſalpine republic, "that they ought to encreaſe the military force of

of their country, not with vagrants or diſſolute men, but with citizens imbued with the principles of the republic, and immediately attached to the proſperity of their country." He further obſerved, "that divided and bowed down for ſo many years under the yoke of ſlavery, they would never have acquired their liberty; but with regulations like theſe, in a few years, were they left to themſelves, no power on earth would take it from them; till that period, France would protect them againſt the attacks of their neighbours, and her political ſyſtem would be united to their own."

He concluded, by remarking, "that in order to conſolidate their liberty, and with the view only of their proſperity and happineſs, he had undertaken a taſk, which could hitherto only be inſpired by ambition, and the love of power; that he was then about to leave them to return only by the order of his government, and if any imminent danger awaited their republic, for whoſe glory in every place, wherever the ſervice of his country ſhould call him, he ſhould entertain the moſt ſincere affection, and the moſt anxious ſolicitude."

This conſummate ſtateſman, Bonaparte, left Italy at the moment when the Ciſalpine government was duly inſtalled.

Notwithſtanding this ſalutary advice of the French commander, the opening of the Ciſalpine legiſlature was far from being auſpicious to genuine liberty. The individuals who compoſed their aſſembly, were a heterogeneous maſs, diſcordant in their views and ſentiments, jealous and ſuſpicious of each other. Ignorant of the land-marks of liberty, ſome imitated the outrageous Jacobins of Paris; others verged to the other extreme. Being ſo long accuſtomed to have their civil and religious opinions dictated to them by others, they ſeemed incapable of aſſuming any of their own, when left to their choice.

Among the French conqueſts, in the expedition againſt the Pope, it muſt be remembered, that the port of

of Ancona, in the Adriatic, was an object of no small importance. By the treaty, this port and its dependencies were to remain in the poſſeſſion of the French, till the continental peace. This peace having taken place, Ancona ought to have been reſtored to the Holy See.

It had, however, been too long under the tutorage of the French, not to have unlearned moſt of its habitual feelings of reverence and allegiance. The people of Ancona, probably ſtimulated by a French party, declared themſelves ſovereign; and communicated their reſolution to be free, and their will to form themſelves into a repreſentative government, under the protection of France, to the French general who commanded in that quarter, and who inſtantly acceded to the wiſh, and proclaimed the free and independent republic of Ancona.

The journey of Bonaparte through Switzerland, would have reſembled a triumph, had his vanity correſponded with their adulation and homage; he arrived at Radſtadt, where he found the plenipotentiaries aſſembled, and where he exchanged with Count Meerfeldt the ratification of the treaty of peace with the court of Vienna. Soon after this took place, he departed from Radſtadt for Paris, leaving commiſſaries behind him, to repreſent the republic in the congreſs, that was to open on the 1ſt of the enſuing January.

In the hiſtory of the preceding year, the moſt prominent figure in the canvas, and the firſt in order of time, is that aſſemblage of ſpiritual and temporal power, the papal ſee, long the object of admiration as well as of terror to the nations of Europe; but this, after repeated ſtruggles againſt diſſolution, of which we have given ſlight ſketches in our proceding pages, now ſunk into, at leaſt a temporary annihiliation. The riſe and progreſs of this mighty empire, which held ſo wide a dominion over the human race, and whoſe influence not only directed the affairs on earth, but pervaded the inviſible

inviſible world, has often ſwelled the hiſtoric page. The annals of hiſtory have, indeed, frequently been little elſe than records of the tyranny of this church; and its decline, poſſibly its fall, at the portentous period of reform through Europe, are no leſs worthy of attention. We have already given details of the negociations between the French republic and the Pope; and we ſhall proceed, ſuccinctly, to give an account of the events which took place at Rome, from the period when Bonaparte ſigned the treaty of Tolentino, to that when the Roman ſenate and people were again proclaimed at the Capitol.

The French commander, Bonaparte having given another reſpite to the Holy See, by the ſignature of that treaty, left the dominions of the Pope in poſſeſſion of a ſmall portion of his army, till the articles of the treaty were executed.

During the negociation the Holy Father, ſtruck with terror, and expecting that no further freedom could be extended to him, had made preparations for flight to Naples, with ſuch of his treaſures as could conveniently be tranſported. All was confuſion and anarchy at Rome till the news of peace arrived, when the pontiff was diverted from his purpoſe of eſcape, and the people were conſoled (or rather inſulted) with proceſſions, prayers, and prieſtly imprecations againſt the French.

The political exiſtence of the Holy See had, indeed, been prolonged by the peace; but it had, nevertheleſs, been left in extreme embarraſſment. The Pope, whoſe conduct of late had been marked by a ſeries of follies, became almoſt an object of compaſſion. His hopes of a counter-revolution were now utterly overthrown; three of his provinces were irremediably loſt; his coffers were empty, his ſubjects diſcontented, and every apparent reſource exhauſted by the heavy exactions which had been already made to pay the tribute of the armiſtice granted by the French laſt ſummer. But in order to execute the preſent treaty, it became

neceſſary to make new exertions, and lamentable edicts were accordingly publiſhed the week that followed the ſigning of the peace, in which the Holy Father, after calling to the remembrance of his ſubjects, that having in the laſt ſeaſon of calamity, demanded the whole of their plate, he had contented himſelf with the half; he muſt now, when circumſtances were more critical, as every one well knew, be compelled to requeſt, that within three days the other half might be carried to the pontifical treaſury.

The iſſuing of this obnoxious edict was one of the laſt labours of Cardinal Buſca, ſecretary of ſtate, and whoſe impolicy had again involved the Holy See in calamities, and nearly accompliſhed its ruin. A new nomination of a ſecretary of ſtate now became neceſſary; and the choice fell on Cardinal Doria. This miniſter, though a ſenſible and upright man, had neither the experience nor the energy which the circumſtances of the times required; but no power or ſkill were perhaps ſufficient to repair ſo diſordered a machine; the chief merit of his ſhort miniſtration was, that he did not accelerate its diſſolution; the ſtriking ſymptoms of which had long ſince appeared; and the gleam of peace obtained by the treaty of Tolentino, far from averting, had only heightened the public diſcontent, and encreaſed their penury. A revolutionary or fanatical ſpirit had pervaded the eccleſiaſtical ſtate in all its parts. While in the juriſdiction of Ancona, at Macerata, Yeſi, and Monte St. Elpidio, frequent inſurrections took place, againſt the French, which were quelled only by ſhedding torrents of blood; the inhabitants of the duchy of Urbino are ſaid to have expreſſed a degree of horror at the idea of returning under the Papal yoke; and the provinces ſituated nearer to the capital, little anxious to conceal their treaſon, expreſſed their wiſhes of re-union to the Ciſalpine republic.

A long ſeries of mortification, at this period, had ſo powerfully affected the health of the reigning pontiff, that his life was deſpaired of; and though his office had become

become an object of dangerous ambition, yet various cardinals put themſelves forward as candidates for the pontifical tiara. But the unexpected recovery of his holineſs diſappointed their hopes, as well as thoſe of the Roman people, who were wearied with ſo long and extraordinary a reign, and who flattered themſelves that a change would terminate, or at leaſt, alley their miſeries. This diſaffection was principally manifeſted towards the Pope's nephew, the Duke of Braſchi. The ſtrong predilection of the pontiff for his nephews, was one principal cauſe of the public diſſatisfaction. The Duke of Braſchi had long been loaded with the ſpoils, and of conſequence, with the curſes of the people, even before the revolutionary ſpirit had ſeized them. Their execrations were not only deep, but uttered in a tone ſo loud, that the Duke was compelled to quit Rome with the utmoſt precipitation. Inſurrectionary placards were ſtuck up at his palace; French airs were publicly ſung; revolutionary witticiſms were heard in every quarter; and the political death of the Holy See was mentioned as an event which would ſpeedily take place, ſince, it was *profanely* obſerved, "to be at that time in the act of receiving extreme unction!"

The reins of government had been of late entruſted to ſuch unſteady hands, that theſe marks of popular indignation had been left unnoticed and unreſtrained; but at length the papal court were aroufed and began about the middle of ſummer to change its operations, and became tyrannical through fear. The garriſon of St. Angelo was at once changed, and augmented, the caſtle furniſhed with ammunition and proviſions, as if about to undergo a ſiege, and troops were diſtributed in different quarters of the town. The deteſtable French ſyſtem of ſuſpicion became at Rome the order of the day; many of the inhabitants were arreſted and impriſoned as ſuſpected perſons; the people, whoſe only conſolation under the miſeries which they felt, was the liberty of murmuring againſt them, were indignant of being deprived of this laſt imaginary comfort,

fort, and boldly declared, that the laſt hour of the Holy See was come.

This revolutionary ſpirit, which no papal edicts could charm, and which the chains and dungeons of St. Angelo could but ill repreſs, was enflamed by the pecuniary embarraſſments of the ſtate. The *cedole*, or paper money, had already loſt half its value, when the government was obliged to make another emiſſion of this diſcredited currency. The contributions exacted by the French at the treaty of Tolentino, had exhauſted every private and every public coffer; and the riches of the clergy now remained the only reſource. But how form any attempts againſt that ſacred, inviolable property? The profane touch of Joſeph II. had ſo alarmed the Pontiff in an early part of his reign, that he had undertaken a journey from Rome to Vienna, to reclaim the ſtrayed Prince, and aſſert the privileges of the church. Long and loud had the thunder of the Vatican rolled againſt the ſacrilegious horrors of the French legiſlature, and againſt that ſpirit of injuſtice which had dared to confound the treaſure of the church with that of the ſtate. Could it then be imagined that the authority which had been moſt ſtrenuouſly employed in oppoſing ſuch daring innovations, that the head of the church itſelf, who was ſpecially choſen to be the guardian of its ſacred rights, ſhould become himſelf the violator? Such were the enquiring murmurs of the aſtoniſhed clergy, when they beheld the edict which enjoined them, both ſecular and regular, to preſent a detailed account of their poſſeſſions, and to advance, by way of loan, a ſixth part of their value to the exigencies of the ſtate.

This ſacrilegious innovation raiſed a hoſt of new enemies, and theſe the moſt dangerous againſt the Holy See. Public marks of diſapprobation attended the Holy Father, whenever he was obliged to appear in public. Several of the more obnoxious of the cardinals were alſo inſulted; but the public rage continued to be chiefly pointed againſt his nephew, on whom was laviſhed

viſhed every expreſſion of indignation and contempt; the ſpirit of inſubordination rapidly gained ground; political conſpiracies were daily formed, among which that of the ſtudents of Rome appeared the moſt prominent. The arreſts and impriſonments, which ſometimes took place, ſerved only to encreaſe the evil. The government had fallen into too much contempt to be greatly the object of fear; and the Pope, without having exerciſed any act of ſeverity, which the circumſtances of the times might in ſome meaſure have juſtified, was reduced to the undeſerved and diſtreſſing ſtate of ſuſpicious tyrants.

The Papal affairs wore this melancholy aſpect when Joſeph Bonaparte, brother of the General, entered Rome, as ambaſſador from the French republic. The peace of Campo Formio, which had juſt been ſigned, left no further hopes of Auſtrian interference; and the Pope yielded without heſitation to the various reclamations made by the French miniſter, among which were the reduction of his troops, the releaſe of thoſe inhabitants of Rome, and foreigners, who had been impriſoned for their political opinions, the clearing the Eccleſiaſtical ſtate from French emigrants, and the diſmiſſal of the Auſtrian general, Provera, ſent by the court of Vienna for the ſervice of the Papal ſtate.

Joſeph Bonaparte, the favourite brother of the General, is repreſented to poſſeſs the moſt amiable and winning diſpoſitions, of the moſt engaging and gentle manners; quite unlike thoſe ferocious emiſſaries of the French government, who have been commonly ſent under the form of commiſſaries, or diplomatic agents, to ſerve or rather diſgrace the republic in the eyes of Europe. The preſence of this new and confidential miniſter excited freſh hopes of more auſpicious times to the more intelligent chiefs of the Roman government.

Yet this period of ſerenity was but momentary; and a ſtorm was gathering in the Ciſalpine republic. The refuſal or delay of the Holy See to acknowledge its political exiſtence, was deemed a ſufficient motive to threaten

threaten a declaration of war; and the promiſe of a public acknowledgment, extorted by menace, ſerved only to awaken new claims, which, though obſolete and abſurd from their antiquity, being founded on tranſactions between Pope Stephen and King Pepin, ſerved as a pretext for the claimants to ſeize on the fort of St. Leon, of which they gained poſſeſſion, after a bloody reſiſtance from the militia and armed peaſantry of the vicinage. The orators proceeded no farther on their march; a brief, in form, acknowledging the exiſtence, and expreſſing a deſire to live in good underſtanding with the new republic, recommended by the French miniſter, put a ſtop to further hoſtilities, againſt which the Pope could have no long or effectual reſiſtance, even had he not already reached the end of the Papal career.

About this epoch (December 28th) there was nothing either in the conduct of the people or adminiſtration of the government, which indicated that its ſubverſion or overthrow was at hand. Both had been of late ſo accuſtomed to ſuffer mortifications, that they ſeemed to feel eaſy under the preſſure of adverſity: the government eſpecially, ſince the arrival of the mild French ambaſſador amongſt them. The people too had fallen from accents of rage and intemperate fury, into their accuſtomed habitual murmurs. The partizans of the French revolution were numerous; but the claſs the moſt reſpectable, and moſt dreaded by government, the moderate and reaſoning party, diſcovered no ſymptoms of extraordinary diſcontent; and the vigilance of the police was deemed ſufficient to reſtrain the turbulent diſpoſitions of the reſt. But notwithſtanding this apparent tranquillity, a few fanatics had conceived the idea that a revolution might eaſily be effected; and three perſons addreſſed themſelves to the French ambaſſador to inform him of their intentions; and enquire if the French government would protect their revolution when once effected. The ambaſſador nobly rejected their overtures, and peremptorily enjoined

joined them never to come into his preſence again with ſuch projects, of which he diſplayed to them the folly and impracticability. The following day, however, a tumult took place near the quarter of the Villa de Medicis, in which two of the Pope's dragoons were killed by the inſurgents, aſſembled to the number of 100. Theſe were afterwards diſperſed; many were arreſted; and as the French cockade, which they had aſſumed, wore the appearance of French ſupport, the ambaſſador haſtened next morning (December 29th) to the ſecretary of ſtate, to give in the liſt of thoſe who, employed in his ſervice, or placed under his protection, had the right of wearing it; requeſting that every other perſon by whom it was worn might be puniſhed. Six of the inſurgents had taken refuge in the juriſdiction of the palace of France; theſe the ambaſſador conſented alſo to give up, that no doubt might remain with reſpect to his conduct or intentions, and that their impunity might not encourage others.

While theſe meaſures were purſuing by the two miniſters, the popular tumult became more ſerious; and at the cloſe of the day, the gates of the French palace were entered by twenty perſons, one of whom, a French artiſt, vehemently demanded the aid of the French republic, as their liberty was now aſſured. The miniſter, ſtruck with his inſolent temerity, ordered him, with his aſſociates, to quit the palace, aſſuring them, that unleſs they inſtantly obeyed, he would take ſevere meaſures againſt them. The military officers who were with the miniſter remonſtrated alſo with them on the folly and raſhneſs of their conduct. Mean while, the tumult encreaſed without, and the cry of the republic and the Roman people was echoed through the courts of the palace, and along the adjoining ſtreets.

Violent meaſures againſt the inſurgents now ſeemed to be abſolutely neceſſary; and therefore, the French officers who were with the ambaſſador propoſed themſelves to drive the inſurgents from the juriſdiction of the palace by force. But to avoid violence, the ambaſſador

baſſador thought his authority would be ſufficient to determine their departure, put on the inſignia of his office, with the intention, as he ſpoke the Italian language, to addreſs the multitude. His laudable intentions, however, were fruſtrated, by a diſcharge of muſquetry, which proceeded from a party of cavalry, who, in traverſing the juriſdiction of the palace, had fired on the inſurgents in the court. The ambaſſador advanced between the inſurgents and the military at a moment when a company of infantry was about to continue the fire, and, demanding by what authority they violated his juriſdiction, forced them to a momentary retreat. Returning to the inſurgents in the court of the palace, who were advancing as the troops fell back, he menaced them with the ſabres of the military who accompanied him, if they proceeded farther. A ſecond diſcharge from the Pope's ſoldiers, which paſſed over the heads of the French, but killed thoſe who were in the rear, led the ambaſſador to divide his ſmall force, which was only a few officers; and leaving ſome to reſtrain the multitude, he advanced, along with the Generals Duphot and Sherlock, to induce the ſoldiery to withdraw, promiſing that the inſurgents ſhould be delivered up and puniſhed. The ſoldiers, regardleſs of his repreſentations, continued to hold themſelves in a menacing poſture, and were about to make another diſcharge, which the General Duphot ruſhed forward to prevent. A ſcene of confuſion enſued. The General, from his deſire of avoiding further bloodſhed, was drawn on amidſt the ſoldiery, where he was wounded by a ſoldier, who diſcharged the contents of his piece into his body, and afterwards treated him with circumſtances of ſavage cruelty. The ambaſſador, and the officers who attended him, eſcaping the danger, and ſeeing another company enter the ſtreet at the oppoſite ſide, retreated through a bye-ſtreet into the gardens of the palace, which was ſtill encumbered by the inſurgents, many of whoſe dead bodies lay ſtrewed around the court, and through the apartments. Two

hours

hours had already paſſed in theſe ſcenes of diſorder, and the ambaſſador continued to be beſieged in his palace, when the miniſter of the Grand Duke of Tuſcany, traverſing the lines of the ſoldiery, ſtill in hoſtile array, entered the palace, while the Spaniſh miniſter ſent to the ſecretary of ſtate, to proteſt againſt the ſcenes of horror that were taking place, but of which, he aſſured him, (and probably with truth) the Pope was altogether ignorant; and indeed no accuſation whatever, either by the French miniſter, or thoſe of the allies of the republic then at Rome, had been brought againſt the government on this occaſion.

It was neither the policy nor intereſt of the court of Rome to have provoked to new hoſtilities; and it appears, from every concurrent teſtimony, that the violation of the juriſdiction of the ambaſſador, the murder of General Duphot, and other outrages, were the reſult of negligence in the commander of Rome, who had ſent troops to quell a riot, of which the government was ignorant, without placing at their head ſuch officers as ſhould have known how to direct the ſoldiery in the execution of their orders, to urge, or to reſtrain their ardour againſt the ſeditious whom they had to diſperſe.

Be that as it may, the ambaſſador was ſo hurt at the contempt ſhewn to his authority, and ingratitude for his lenity, that he quitted Rome, and withdrew to Florence, notwithſtanding the preſſing ſolicitations of the Papal miniſtry to continue his reſidence among them till the ferment ſhould ſubſide. The ſecretary of ſtate, Doria, accompanied the paſſports which he ſent to the ambaſſador, with letters to the Papal miniſter at Paris, in which he enjoined him, in the name of the Holy Father, and his own, to humble himſelf before the French directory, to ſolicit them to demand the largeſt indemnifications, and aſſure them that tranquillity would be reſtored to the Holy See only when due ſatisfaction ſhould be made.

But however juſtifiable the Papal miniſtry might be, reſpecting any connivance at the ſhocking ſcenes, and

of which the ambaſſador himſelf ſeemed to be partly convinced; yet the occaſion was too favourable to be neglected by the French directory, who probably were waiting to take advantage of the errors of the Papal adminiſtration. The Ciſalpine government, which ſtill hovered around, hitherto reſtrained from darting on its prey, would have been the firſt to hurl the avenging thunder, had not the victim and the ſacrifice been judged worthy of the directorial rapacity itſelf. The Holy See felt the infallible ſymptoms of its approaching diſſolution; but, in order to deprecate the wrath of the French government, and ward off the deadly blow, after vain ſolicitations, the Spaniſh miniſter, and numerous courtiers were tired in fruitleſs expeditions to Florence, Naples, and Vienna; heaven was aſſailed with prayers, faſtings, proceſſions, and jubilees; *Madonas wept over their votaries, (wonderful!)* the theatres were ſhut up; new and numerous arreſts of perſons, ſuſpected to have been concerned in the outrages, were ordered to be made; and manifeſtoes exculpating and recriminating were publiſhed.

But the infatuated and diſaffected mob paid no reſpect to the diſtreſs and anxiety of the government, who ſaw nothing but inevitable ruin approaching their doomed nation with rapid ſtrides; and unawed by authority, and unaffected with fear, poſted up ſatirical and menacing placards on the walls of the moſt public places of the city; and portraits of Bonaparte, under the ſhocking and impious title of *the new ſaviour of the world*, were diſtributed among the people; ſo that Rome, for ſome time, preſented little elſe than a ſcene, on which were diſplayed the paſſions of parties, who according to their fears or hopes were deploring the Papal deceaſe.

Deaf to all remonſtrances, entreaties, and mediation, of Princes, Prelates, &c. the inexorable directory ordered the French and Ciſalpine armies to march againſt Rome, under the command of General Berthier. The march was nothing more than a military proceſſion; for

for no reſiſtance could be offered, where no authority exiſted to collect force, which, if even collected, would probably have joined the ſtandards of the invaders. The entrance of General Berthier into Rome, was preceded by a proclamation, in which he declared that the only object of his viſit was the puniſhment of the murderers of Duphot and Baſſeville, and that the people of Rome ſhould find in the French army protectors and friends.

All parties fully underſtood the meaning of the proclamation; and while the Pope, and thoſe more particularly attached to him, remained, either ſtupified or trembling, in the apartments of the Vatican, the mob aſſembled in the Campo Vaccino, under the direction of ſuch as had taken the lead amongſt the revolutionary party, where they proclaimed the Roman republic on the 15th of February, and immediately planted the tree of liberty.

His Holineſs, however, made one effort againſt political annihiliation, by ſending to Berthier, encamped without the walls of Rome, his cardinal vicar Somaglio, the cardinal Arigoni, Prince Gieuſtimani, and the Neapolitan miniſter, to negociate for his temporal exiſtence, by the further ſacrifice of provinces and of millions, which at this alarming criſis were liberally offered by the trembling pontiff. The general, refuſing to admit any other deputation than that of the Roman people, diſſipated the laſt illuſion of the Holy Father; and this latter deputation having preſented itſelf, to make known to him the revolution which had juſt been accompliſhed, as well as the proviſionary conſular government which had been formed, invited the General to accompany them, in ſolemn proceſſion to the Capitol, to ſanction the revolution by his preſence, as repreſentative of the French republic. The General, preceded by military muſic, and attended by his officers and detachments of foot and horſe from his army, traverſed Rome, amidſt an immenſe crowd of people, gazing upon the novel ſight with anxious curioſity; uncertain

uncertain whether the ſound of liberty, which had lately been proclaimed by the people, would be re-echoed by the conqueror; or, whether ſtill further exactions, in order to atone for the faults of their late government, were to be the forerunners of a ſtill more abject ſubjection. But Berthier did not ſuffer them to remain long in this incertitude; having aſcended like the conquerors of old, he proclaimed the object of his miſſion, and the fate of Rome, in the following ſpeech, in the French manner.

"Manes of Cato, of Pompey, and of Brutus; of Cicero, and of Hortenſius; accept the homage of the French, became free, in the Capitol, where you have ſo often defended the rights of the people, and added new glories to the Roman republic!

"The deſcendents of the Gauls, with the olive-branch in their hand, now repair to this auguſt ſpot, to re-eſtabliſh the altars of liberty, erected by the elder Brutus.

"And you, people of Rome, who have regained your lawful rights, call to remembrance, the monuments of glory that ſurround you; reſume your ancient ſpirit, and emulate the virtues of your anceſtors."

But although liberty was thus in words proclaimed, the proviſional government, which the inſurgents had inſtituted, was laid aſide by the French general, who aſſumed the ſupreme authority till the arrival of the French commiſſaries appointed by the directory to form a conſtitution, and a definitive government. A proviſionary government had been formed, compoſed of perſons, of different ranks, and diſcordant opinions; ſuch as princes, cardinals, prince's lawyers, merchants, and peaſants; but this heterogeneous body was of ſhort duration. Some organized ſyſtem, however, in this diſjointed ſtate of public affairs at Rome, was neceſſary even under the abſolute authority of a French general. The revolutioniſts, therefore, had recourſe to their firſt plan; and an extenſive government was formed, under the

the denomination of a conſulate, compoſed of ſix members.

But, although the arrival of the French army, and the lofty proclamation of the French general at the Capitol, had given the mortal blow to the Papal authority, the members of the ſacred college yet remained, whilſt they beheld from the windows of the Vatican the people in long and ſolemn proceſſion, bearing the tree of liberty which they were going to plant before the ſtatue of Marcus Aurelius, attempted to avert the evil, and to form deluſive plans for the continuation of the Papal authority. Some of the cardinals, however, foreſeeing another revolutionary ſtorm gathering, were prudent enough to ſecure their money and valuable effects and quit Rome.

The majority of the ſacred college remained at Rome, ſtupified or afflicted according to their various ſenſibilities, at the ſudden ruin under which they had been overwhelmed. The fantaſtic farces of authority which they had enacted in the Vatican, under the bayonets of a triumphant invader, and the ſhouts of a revolted nation, were ſoon ſucceeded by deep ſighs of regret, at the ſudden diſappearance of that enormous maſs of ſplendor, which eclipſed and dazzled all around them; and by tragic declamations at the fleeting vanities of the world, and the uncertainty of all human enjoyments!

But ſighs and declamations were only preludes of misfortunes and calamities ſtill more afflictive and grievous. Theſe unhappy perſonages, to whom the theory of worldly evil was ſcarcely known, were fated to taſte its reality, in almoſt every bitter form that the harſhneſs of revolutionary power could deviſe. The eſtates of thoſe cardinals who had already taken their flight were confiſcated, and the beautiful and claſſic ornaments which enriched their ſplendid palaces and villas were expoſed as the prey of vulgar ſpeculation. Some of theſe lordly prelates were allowed to plead the privilege of diſeaſe, and were confined as priſoners in

in their beds of ſickneſs. Others were incarcerated, among whom was Carandini, whoſe repentance, wrought by Bonaparte, was repented of, at the view of the deſolation which had befallen the church, and whoſe active zeal for what he deemed the honour of religion, had prompted him to declaim, in unguarded terms, againſt the civic oath, which he officially repreſented as an impious act, heretical with reſpect to the church, and diſloyal with reſpect to the ſtate. But now the ſtrong arm of power was employed againſt theſe haughty eccleſiaſtics without ceremony or reſpect. They were ſent from their priſons in Rome to Civita-Vecchia, and menaced with exile to ſome inhoſpitable foreign climes. This menace was not miſunderſtood. The greater part of theſe impriſoned Princes of the church found means to procure their liberty by the ſacrifice of their wealth; though there were ſome who ſcorned thus to compromiſe for the charge of unfounded guilt.

The cardinals thus inſulted and plundered, took advantage of the moment of their liberation to fly, diſguiſed in the habits of private citizens, from that land where their former glories and their preſent degradation formed ſuch a mortifying contraſt. Yet the Roman nobility, in general, bore with reſignation the tranſition from rank and title to the condition of private citizens. Where no deſpotiſm had been exerciſed, and where no conſpiracies were formed, there was no pretence for confiſcation or plunder. The greater number of this privileged claſs ſubmitted without murmur to every change, content in the continued poſſeſſion of their revenues, which were, however, ſometimes weakened by extraordinary contributions for the exigencies of the ſtate: a few, more active, or more artful, took part in the revolution, and were named to the principal offices of the government.

Whilſt theſe changes were taking place in Rome, the Pope remained confined to his apartments, in anxious and trembling uncertainty with reſpect to his fate. That of his nephews had been already decided. The obnoxious

obnoxious one, the cardinal Braſchi, whoſe fortune chiefly conſiſted in the rich benefices conferred on him by the waſteful liberality of his uncle, ſhared the general proſcription. On the elevation of the preſent Pope to the pontifical dignity, the French ambaſſador at the court of Rome, amongſt other benefits reſulting to the eccleſiaſtical ſtate from his nomination, enumerated the extinction of that abuſe of power in the former Popes, known by the name of nepotiſm, or partiality to nephews. The late Pope, the celebrated Ganganelli, who had, perhaps, too large a portion of virtuous qualities for the ſtation which he filled, when his nephews were preſented to him, told them, "that if they would labour for themſelves, he would give them his protection; and that, if they were idle, he would ſend them back to their parents."

Yet, amidſt this almoſt general defection from allegiance to the Papal authority, the Pope reſtrained his indignation at this ſtudied contempt both of his civil and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction; nor was his ſorrow at this apoſtaſy expreſſed in louder terms than ſighs and murmurs, till his temporal poſſeſſions of the comtate of Venaiſſon and Avignon fell under the eye of the confiſcating aſſembly in the year 1789. It was not without reſiſtance that this invaſion was beheld by the court of Rome. Briefs and bulls were put in oppoſition to revolutionary motions, and national decrees.——We return from this apparent digreſſion, to the more immediate ſubject of our hiſtory.

We have repeatedly obſerved, that the Papal government had fallen into debility and contempt, at this revolutionizing period; and ſcarcely retained ſufficient force to keep up the internal police of the ſtate. Had the French even withdrawn their protection, the Papal power was too weak to reſiſt any hoſtile incurſion of even the leaſt warlike of its neighbours; and the exiſtence of ſuch a government was no doubt in contradiction to the directorial ſyſtem of proſelyting and forming republics. The operations of the French government

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in Italy, were at that time no longer ſubjected to the advice or modifications of Bonaparte; and the empty glory of erecting the Gallic ſtandard on the Capitol, bore down all other conſiderations.

The French commiſſaries, ſent by the directory after the aſſaſſination of General Duphot, now put their inſtructions into execution, the firſt of which reſpected the head of the church; in conſequence of which theſe gentlemen informed the nominal rulers in Rome, that the preſence of the Holy Father was incompatible with the tranquillity of the ſtate. Hated, during the latter part of his reign by his ſubjects, for multiplied errors of conduct, both public and private; deſpiſed for the puerile vanity which he betrayed on every occaſion, with reſpect to his own perſon; deteſted for his predilection for his rapacious nephews, who, they alledged, had become the legalized plunderers of the ſtate; and fatiguing the whole world by the commiſſion of the involuntary crime of exiſting far beyond the longeſt period allotted by the people of Rome to his predeceſſors, by impatient ambition, and capricious love of change, Pius tumbled from his throne, became an object of intereſt and compaſſion, even to thoſe who had voted with moſt energy and perſeverance for his fall. His firſt reſidence, after leaving Rome, was at Sienna, in the convent of St. Barba. An earthquake, which overthrew the edifices adjoining to that in which he reſided, and damaged his own, led him to take up his abode without the walls of the city. From this place he removed to the Chartreuſe, two miles from Florence. There he held his little court, but with cautious circumſpection; fearing to give offence either to the French or Tuſcan government, he offered to leave the nomination of his houſehold to the inſpection of the French miniſter. Papal greatneſs could ſcarcely experience a lower degradation.

But although ſtript of his temporal dignity, his Holineſs preſented an example of Chriſtian reſignation. His retreat was cheered, indeed, by ſuch ſolid proofs of

of perſonal friendſhip from many wealthy ſons of the church, as made him ſlightly to regret the luxury of Roman delicacies, to which he was by no means inſenſible; and witty malignity has preſented us with anecdotes of ſecret indulgencies of the Holy Father, which if they diminiſh ſomewhat of that habitual reverence which affix to the ſanctity of his character, preſent him under a point of view perhaps more amiable, and more engaging to the ſocial affections. Diſburdened of the weight of his dignities, he ſeemed to have become lighter of heart, and, no longer embarraſſed with the care of office, his health became more ſtable, his ſpirits became likewiſe more animated and lively; and making a compromiſe with his former habits and paſſions, diminiſhed, or rather mellowed by age and diſappointment, he ſeemed to enjoy, rather than to lament, his misfortunes, and embraced adverſity as the handmaid of happineſs.

Although the temporal power of the Pope was deſtroyed, and his kingdom was no longer of this world, yet his ſpiritual authority continued to be recognized, and his functions were performed under the name of vicegerent, and he diſpenſed to the faithful the ſacred gifts according to their ſeveral deſires and neceſſities.

The temporal power given by the French general to the proviſionary government, was at length confirmed by a regular conſtitution, made at Paris on the model of the French; but in which the names of conſuls, ſenate, tribunes, queſtors, and other titles of claſſic ſtory, ſuperſeded the French denominations of directory, miniſters, and councils.

The palace on the Mount Quirinal, hitherto the ſummer reſidence of the Pontiff, became the ſeat of conſular dignity. The Vatican, from whoſe tremendous portals had burſt forth thoſe ſpiritual thunders, which in remoter times had ſhook the world, now opened its rich and various treaſures of literature, the only unavailing antidote to ſuperſtition; and the members of a national inſtitute, by whom it was now inhabited, formed a contraſt

with the waſteful pomp and expenſive luxury of its late poſſeſſors. The inquiſition, and other monuments of ſpiritual deſpotiſm, which had long ſurvived the ſpirit which gave them birth, laudably periſhed in this extenſive revolution.

The ſpiritual office, from which briefs or bulls for benefices were diſpenſed, and which brought into the Roman treaſury a clear profit of from eighty to one hundred thouſand pounds ſterling annually, was ſuffered to remain. The temporal eſtabliſhments, particularly two banks, one for private loans or pledges, and the other for diſcounts, were preſerved.

But the revolution only encreaſed the weight of the diſorders in the public finances. Confiſcations of incorporate property, ſuch as the domains belonging to the apoſtolic chamber, and eſtates of religious communities, which it was found expedient to ſuppreſs, and which the diſperſion of the crowd of monks who had flocked to Rome from various quarters of Chriſtendom, yielded certain reſources.

The new inſtituted Roman republic had, in the firſt moments of its birth, to ſtruggle with difficulties, great and almoſt inſurmountable. Theſe, however, might have been alleviated, if not overcome, had the French government been actuated by a genuine love for the real intereſts of the Roman commonwealth; but alas, other conſiderations leſs patriotic influenced the members of the executive government.

The overthrow of the Papal power was a meaſure loudly demanded, not only by the voice of reaſon and humanity, but by the rulers of almoſt every catholic country in Europe, to whom the Papal yoke had become inſupportable. But the paſſage from the ruins of that corrupted maſs of ſuperſtitious deſpotiſm, to the erection of a free republic, founded on the baſis of public virtue, is an enterprize of difficult execution. Unfortunately too, the Roman government was inſtituted under the patronage of a directory equally unprincipled and

and impolitic. It was therefore formed for ruin and doomed to fall.

We now turn the attention of our readers to what has been accounted a flagrant violation committed by the French directory of the rights of independent nations, in the aggreſſions made upon the cantons of Switzerland. They, indeed, might have given the French executive government ſome unintentional offence; but this became properly a ſubject of negociation, and a friendly political diſcuſſion might probably have terminated the affair, in a manner mutually ſatiſfying. But the French directory ſeem to have had other views; the line of conduct which they had purſued towards Venice, Genoa, and Rome, was now matured into a ſyſtem. With them, war, the laſt reſort of human reſentment, the worſt of human calamities, was become a trade, and the unoccupied legions of France, in order to leſſen the demands of the military cheſt upon the national treaſury, levied ſubſiſtence upon their defenceleſs neighbours. Switzerland now became the object of French ambition, not ſo much like Italy on account of its riches, as that it lay as a powerful barrier between them and other nations hoſtile to the French republic. The directory, towards the cloſe of the year 1797, haſtened to put in force their project of ſubjugating the Swiſs republics. The firſt hoſtile movement on the part of the French, was, to take poſſeſſion of the Helvetic part of the biſhopric of Baſle under ſome frivolous pretext. Either too weak, or too prudent, to reſent this infraction of their rights, the Helvetic body ſtill flattered themſelves with an amicable termination of their difference with France, when an inſurrection which broke out in the *Pays-de-Vaud*, afforded a more plauſible pretext for the overthrow of the government.

In the month of December, the French directory thought it neceſſary to interfere in this domeſtic diſpute, and demanded from the government of Berne, what they termed the reſtoration of the rights of that people, and the

the aſſembling of the ſtates of the Pays-de-Vaud, in their ancient form; this demand they immediately prepared to enforce by arms; and General Menard was ordered to march, with a body of 15,000 men, to ſupport the claims of the petitioning party in the Pays-de-Vaud. The deſigns of the French were for the moment fruſtrated by the timidity or generoſity of the ſupreme council of Berne. On the 5th of January, 1798, they iſſued a proclamation, enjoining the citizens of the Pays-de-Vaud to aſſemble in arms, to renew the oath of allegiance, to proceed immediately to the reform of every abuſe in the government, and to aſſert and re-eſtabliſh all their ancient rights.—But ſome miſtake happening in the execution of a commiſſion from Lauſanne, for determining on the claims of the petitioners, the people became impatient, and an inſurrection at once broke out into open hoſtility. The caſtle of Chillon was ſeized by the inſurgents; and the commotions which happened in the ſouthern cantons, ſeemed no leſs formidable. The government of Berne now determined to reduce the inſurgents by force; and a body of 20 000 troops, under the command of General Weiſs, was diſpatched to diſperſe them. The General purſuing lenient meaſures, and not being willing to ſhed blood, ſerved to heighten the audacity, and encreaſe the numbers of the inſurgents.

Thus ſituated, the approach of the French troops, under the command of Menard, decided the conteſt. On paſſing the boundary, Menard diſpatched an aid-de-camp, attended by two huſſars, to General Weiſs, at Yverdun; on their return, a fatal affray took place at the village of Thierens, in which one of the huſſars was unluckily killed. Who were the aggreſſors, is not clearly aſcertained; but it was regarded by General Menard as a declaration of war. His troops immediately advanced, while thoſe of Weiſs retreated; and the whole of the Pays-de-Vaud was, by the beginning of February, in the poſſeſſion of the French.

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The government of Berne ſtill hoped, it appears, to avert the deſtruction which now ſeemed to await them: the centinels who had killed the huſſar were delivered into the hands of Menard; and freſh negociations were entered upon. In the mean time, however, new inſurrections were planned in various parts; and the revolutionary influenza appeared to encreaſe. In theſe inſurrections, Mengaud, the French envoy, was obſerved to take an active part; and, on the 2d of January, he formally reclaimed ſome perſons who had been arreſted for treaſonable practices by the government of Berne, as the friends and allies of the French republic. The government of Berne paid little or no attention to this reclamation; and the ſtandard of revolt having been erected at Arau, they determined on effective meaſures for its ſuppreſſion, and their own defence. The Argovian militia marched to Arau; the town and province were immediately reduced, and the leaders of the inſurrection were immediately taken into cuſtody.

The ſword ſeemed now to be appealed to for a deciſion. But to conciliate the minds of the people, and to induce them the more freely to come forward with their aſſiſtance, the government of Berne decreed, that fifty-two deputies from the principal towns and communes ſhould be added to the ſupreme council; and on the 2d of February, theſe new deputies took their ſeats. Firſt of all in their deliberations, a general reform of all the abuſes of government was reſolved on; and in theſe meaſures the Canton of Berne was followed by the others of the confederate ſtates of Switzerland.

While in this ſtate of things, freſh negociations were commenced with the French directory, a defenſive force, conſiſting of about 20,000 men, was collected, under the command of M. d'Erlach, formerly a field-marſhal in the ſervice of France, and ſtationed on the frontiers. The other Swiſs cantons diſpatched their quotas to the defence of Berne, which conſiſted of about

about 5,500 men. A truce had been concluded with the French General in the Pays-de-Vaud, where an officer of the name of Brune had ſucceeded General Menard in the command. The truce was to have expired on the 1ſt of March, but General d'Erlach, fearful leſt the ardor of his troops ſhould cool, demanded, on the 26th of February, poſitive orders to put his army in motion, and the council immediately paſſed a decree to that effect. The plan of the campaign was now arranged by M. d'Erlach, and notice had been given to the poſts, that hoſtilities were to commence, on the evening of the 1ſt of March; when the movements of the Swiſs general were fruſtrated by the repeal of the decree which had been ſo haſtily and incautiouſly paſſed, while the negociation with the French commander was renewed.

It is aſſerted, that the French general, Brune, had agreed to prolong the truce for thirty hours; but, on the 2d of march, the caſtle of Dornach, at the northern extremity of the canton of Soleure, was attacked and carried by the French; and, at the ſame time, 13,000 men were marched under the walls of Soleure, which capitulated to General Scawenburg, on the firſt ſummons. Friburg was immediately reduced by General Brune, and the Swiſs army were forced to retreat.

While diſaffection and mutiny pervaded the army of General d'Erlach, the inhabitants of Berne ſaw the rapid approach of the victorious army. On the 3d of March the riſing of the people to a man was proclaimed. The expedient did not ſucceed according to the wiſh of the magiſtrates.—The people were no ſooner aſſembled in arms than they of themſelves diſſolved the government; a proviſional regency was elected for the occaſion; the event was notified to General Brune; and to facilitate a pacification, an order was iſſued to diſmiſs the army, on condition that the French would keep the poſts which they at preſent occupied.

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This conceſſion, truly reſpectful and explicit, did not however ſatisfy the French general; and he inſiſted upon the town receiving a Fench garriſon.

In this convulſed ſtate of things, confuſion and diſorder univerſally reigned, both in the city of Berne and in the Swiſs army; the left diviſion of which had mutinied, deſerted their poſts, and killed ſome of their officers who wiſhed to maintain ſubordination. By deſertion, the Swiſs army was reduced to 14,000 men. About 8.000 of the regular forces were ſtationed at Neweneg, and 6.400 held the poſition of Frauenbrun, againſt whom General Schawenbourg advanced from Soleure, at the head of 8,000 men On the morning of the 5th of March, both poſts were attacked by the French, and a momentary ſucceſs ſeemed to crown the valorous efforts of the diviſion which was ſtationed at Neweneg, but the forces ſtationed at Frauenbrun were, after a vigorous reſiſtance, obliged to retreat. M. d'Erlach rallied his men at Uteren, where a ſecond engagement took place, but with no better ſucceſs on the part of the Swiſs. At Granboltz, a league and a half from Berne, however, they again made a ſtand, whence they were driven to the gates of the capital, where, after another ſevere conflict, they were completely routed. In this bloody conteſt the Swiſs loſt 2,000 in killed and wounded; the loſs of the French was about 1,800 men.

General Brune now finding no oppoſition in the field, entered the city of Berne by capitulation. The diviſion of the Swiſs army ſtationed at Neweneg and Guminen retreated; the ſoldiers of this laſt column, in deſpair, put their officers to death; and the unfortunate General D'Erlach, in flying from the field of battle, was murdered by his countrymen and ſoldiers.

The ſubmiſſion of nearly the whole of the ſtates of Switzerland followed the defeat of the Berneſe. The democratic republic, however, ſtill made a noble ſtand for their independency; and in a pitched battle defeated General Schawenbourg, and forced him to retire

with

with the loſs of 3,000 of his men, after he had conſented to a treaty by which he engaged not to enter the ſmaller cantons.

After this revolution, the Swiſs confederacy changed even its name along with its conſtitution. The French generals eſtabliſhed proviſional governments in the different diſtricts, and the whole aſſumed the name of the *Helvetic republic*.—As the French affected to take the ancient Romans for their models in their conſtitution, laws, arrangement of their armies, &c. ſo they reſtored the ancient claſſic names to thoſe countries which they conquered; and as the Helvetic were that warlike people whom *the mighty Julius* fought and overthrew, and who in modern times were called the Swiſs, ſo they now had their ancient appellation of Helvetic reſtored them once more by the French. French commiſſaries immediately ſet about, as uſual, to levy exactions and contributions; and it is reported, that the army of the Rhine diſhonoured themſelves by committing ſome ſhocking enormities upon the vanquiſhed; while the army of Italy are ſaid to have conducted themſelves with humanity, and the ſtricteſt juſtice.

It will be recollected, that, in order to counterbalance their defeats and diſgraces by ſea, their fleets and thoſe of their allies being blocked up in their harbours, the French raiſed a numerous army on the northern coaſts of France, and the Netherlands, beſtowing upon it the pompous epithet of the army of England.—Yet they, by the defeats and capture of the ſmall ſquadrons which they ſent to Ireland, and ſeeing little or no diſpoſition in the bulk of the inhabitants to join their ſtandard, ſeemed to turn their attention to another quarter of the world: and, after the treaty of Campo Formio, the army became a burden which they found it difficult to ſupport, and which it might be dangerous to their authority to maintain. The invaſion of England was found to be totally impracticable.—The fleet which ſhould convey the troops would, in all probability, experience nothing but defeat, from the acknowledged

ledged ſuperiority of the Britiſh navy, and probably were apprehenſive of the re-action ſuch a calamity might create.

To avoid theſe difficulties; and it was ſuppoſed, to find occupation for the enterpriſing ſpirit of Bonaparte, an expedition was planned to diſpatch him to a diſtant ſhore, where, as the politicians of thoſe times conjectured, ſucceſs or misfortune could little intereſt the nation, and where his defeat would excite no re-action or murmurs, which might endanger the directory, his employers. Such were the ſhallow conjectures of uninformed ſpeculators in the year 1798. It has ſince appeared, however, that this expedition was one of the boldeſt, and deepeſt laid, that happened during the whole war. The object propoſed by this expedition was, firſt to ſail with a well appointed army, conveyed in a powerful fleet to the ſhores of Egypt, and from thence to penetrate, either by the iſthmus of Suez, or by the Red-ſea, to the Indian Ocean, to embark his troops, and by a co-operation with Tippoo Sultan, to endeavour the overthrow of the Britiſh empire in the Eaſt.

This daring and bold project was entruſted for its execution to Bonaparte, one of the deepeſt politicians and accompliſhed ſoldiers that poſſibly the world ever ſaw.

The ſcheme was obſcurely hinted to the council of five hundred by Eſſchaſſereaux, in a ſpeech or report which he made on the ſubject of colonization. From that report the ſole object was held out to be the eſtabliſhing a colony in Egypt, and, to regenerate (in the new language of the French) a country which was the firſt theatre of civilization in the univerſe. While preparations were ſecretly making for this expedition, the public were amuſed with ſtrange and monſtrous ſtories of rafts to be conſtructed for the invaſion of England, and troops were collected on the northern coaſt of France, while the navy of the republic were ſecretly repairing to Toulon. At length every thing being duly

prepared, the commander in chief, Bonaparte, embarked on board the fleet under the command of Admiral Brueys, on board of which were 40,000 men, all veterans, picked and ſelected by the General, and who had ſhared with him in his triumphs in Italy and Germany. They ſailed from Toulon about the latter end of May.

All Europe were now in a kind of breathleſs expectation, reſpecting the deſtination of this mighty armament, conducted by ſo able and enterpriſing a commander. Allured probably by the fame of its riches, the celebrated iſland of Malta, was their firſt deſtination. But plunder and ſpoils had few charms for Bonaparte; glory, and the extenſion of the power of his country ſeem to have been his chief motive in appearing in ſight of that wonderful fortreſs, the poſſeſſion of which would be of the laſt conſequence to the French marine, both in peace and war. He arrived off that iſland on the 9th of June, and requeſted leave to water the fleet. Apprehenſive, however, of admitting ſo formidable an armament, the Grand Maſter refuſed, and the French general prepared for an attack upon the place. The following day the French troops landed, under a heavy cannonade from the forts. The iſland of Gozzo was taken by one detachment, while the ſouthern part of the iſland was reduced by another. The maſs of the inhabitants of the iſland took refuge in the garriſon, while the French made preparations to preſs the ſiege with effect.

The reſiſtance made, however, by the Malteſe was, on the whole, but feeble, and unworthy of the reſolute courage of their intrepid anceſtors. A ſortie was attempted from the garriſon, which the French immediately repulſed and drove back into the forts; and the ſtandard of the order of Malta, which had waved defiance to the Saracens and Turks for ages, fell into the hands of the victors; a circumſtance which diſheartened the beſieged almoſt as powerfully as the battery and well-ſerved artillery of the aſſailants. On the 11th the Grand

Grand Maſter propoſed a capitulation. This was readily conſented to by Bonaparte, and the whole of the iſland, and all its dependencies, were ſurrendered to the republic of France.

Thus Malta, one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in the world, and which, when all Aſia, Africa, and the beſt part of Europe were conquered by the overwhelming armies of the Ottoman empire, had ſet their fleets and armies at defiance for many centuries, ſubmitted almoſt without bloodſhed to the republican arms of France.

The victorious General carefully repaired, and put in the moſt formidable ſtate of defence, this mighty fortreſs. In it he left 4,000 choice troops for its defence. Having taken theſe precautions, he ſailed with his fleet, and proceeded on his voyage about the 21ſt of June, and arrived at Alexandria on the firſt of July.

The Britiſh government were ſtruck with ſurpriſe on hearing of the ſailing of the French fleet in ſuch force from Toulon; and juſtly judging that it was with no friendly intention, they loſt no time in diſpatching after them a well-appointed ſquadron, under the command of Admiral Nelſon, a young officer, but of the moſt reſolute and daring courage, and who had on many trying occaſions ſignalized himſelf, and above all his other qualifications, poſſeſſed in a ſuperior degree, the entire confidence of thoſe whom he commanded, both officers and men.

But, although ſwift ſailing frigates and other veſſels had been diſpatched inſtantly in queſt of the enemy, the French had the addreſs to eſcape their vigilance.

Fortune ſtill ſeemed to crown with ſucceſs the efforts of the French. Alexandria, founded by Alexander the Great, and made, by that conqueror, the ſeat of his vaſt empire, was the firſt object of attack by the French invader. Bonaparte, who took the place by aſſault, on the night of the 5th of July, with the trifling loſs of between two and three hundred men.

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The poor and degenerate race of Mamelukes, Arabs, and other mongrel defcendants of the various nations, who had, in their turns, fubjugated this rich and fertile portion of the globe, were poorly qualified to withftand the victorious conquerors of Italy. But, like other cowards, although they poffeffed little or no real courage, they were not deficient in cruelty, and difcovered this bafe difpofition in barbarouſly murdering fuch of the French foldiers as fell in their way. It is faid, however, that this was occafioned by the almoft indifcriminate plunder and maffacre committed by the French, on their becoming maſters of the capital of Egypt. This difgraceful circumftance, it has been faid, the French general was not able to prevent; and, indeed, it feems credible, as that fagacious commander would eafily perceive, that in order to conciliate the affections of the natives, it was the worft policy whatever to plunder and maffacre them without reſiſtance or diſcrimination; befides it ill comported with his general character for clemency and humanity towards the conquered, and which he diſplayed on all occafions in Italy, and other fcenes of his warfare. The French proceeded from Alexandria to Roſetta, and fome other places of ſtrength, all of which ſoon ſubmitted to the conquerors. This brave commander, although young, knew much of human nature; and therefore wiſhing to mingle conciliation with terror, Bonaparte iſſued a proclamation in the Arabic language, profeſſing himſelf the friend and ally of the Grand Signior—that the French were friends of toleration in religion, and well diſpoſed to the tenets of Mahomet, and that his ſole object was to deliver Egypt from the tyranny of the Beys*.

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* It is ſaid, but with what truth we will not affirm, that Bonaparte, in order to aſcertain the ſtate of the atmoſphere in Egypt, had taken along with him a large air baloon; which having cauſed to be filled with gas or highly rarified air, he told the gaping Beys, Mamelukes, and other by-ſtanders, that in order to convince

On the 21ſt, the republican army appeared before Cairo, which was defended by Morad Bay, with a conſiderable body of Mamelukes. On the 23d, that extenſive city was attacked by the French troops and carried. On this occaſion the Mamelukes fought with great courage, but were obliged to give way to the ſuperior tactics of European veterans.

At Cairo Bonaparte iſſued a proclamation, appointing a proviſional government for Egypt, in which the authority of the Grand Signior was ſtill acknowledged; and the General promiſed to ſecure the Pacha of Egypt in all his former dignity and power. Indeed, as it was evident that the conqueſt of Egypt was not the primary object of the expedition, it is certain that had not the Mamelukes and other ſubjects of the Porte interrupted Bonaparte in his career towards India, he would have ſuffered them peaceably to enjoy their poſſeſſions; but it is probable they were alarmed at ſeeing ſuch a formidable force upon their coaſts, and ſo would endeavour to expel them by force of arms.

The Beys ſtill thinking that their all was at ſtake, and undiſmayed by their former defeats, attempted to rally, and a formidable force was collected in the vicinity of the city of Cairo. The French general, on the 25th, attacked one of their poſts at Lambale, when 300 of the enemy were killed. This, however, was only a trifling ſkirmiſh in compariſon of the famous battle,

vince them that he was ſent by God to emancipate them from their ſlavery, he would, in their preſence, aſcend to heaven, and bring his credentials from the Great Prophet. He accordingly got into the car, and the baloon being let looſe, it gradually aſcended with the General towards heaven to the aſtoniſhment of the multitude; and having diſappeared for ſome time, he was ſeen deſcending, and alighted nigh the place from whence he went up. He then took out of his pocket ſome piece of parchment, and affecting to read its contents, told them that the Prophet had commiſſioned him by this inſtrument to be the avenger of their wrongs and reſtorer of their liberty. We may eaſily figure to ourſelves what an impreſſion a phenomenon ſo novel and ſtriking would make upon an ignorant ſuperſtitious mob.

battle, as it was called, of the Pyramids. On the ſucceeding day, the Mamelukes prepared for a deciſive engagement, and collecting their whole force, attacked the republican troops with their uſual impetuoſity. The veteran troops of France ſtood firm againſt them like a wall of braſs, and received the aſſault of the enemy, ruſhing furiouſly on, well mounted on beautiful horſes and finely capariſoned, with their long and heavy ſabres in hand, with that firmneſs peculiar to European troops; and not only repelling their aſſault, but, in their turn, attacking the Mamelukes with their fixed bayonets, broke their ranks, and put them totally into a ſtate of a diſorderly flight. In this bloody engagement, twenty-three Beys, with all the forces they could bring into the field, were completely defeated. Two thouſand of the Mamelukes were ſlain on the field of battle, and 400 camels, with their valuable baggage, and fifty pieces of cannon were taken from the enemy; while the loſs of the French was only eſtimated at twenty or thirty men killed, and about 120 wounded—ſo vaſtly ſuperior is the modern mode of military tactics univerſally adopted, and highly improved in the French armies, over the ſudden impetuous attack practiſed at firſt by the Saracens and Turks, and continued to be uſed by the Mamelukes in Egypt. —All military men, with one conſent, agree that of all the weapons ever invented for the deſtruction of man and horſe, none can be equalled to the muſket and ſcrewed bayonet; thus poſſeſſing all the ſtrength of the ancient ſpear, along with the deſtructive operation of fire-arms.

Thus the conqueſt and ſubjugation of Egypt ſeemed to all Europe to be complete. But a dreadful reverſe of fortune awaited the victorious invaders; and this hitherto fortunate commander was to experience a calamity, which at once daſhed all his hopes, not only of penetrating into India, but of even retaining his preſent critical ſituation in a hoſtile country far from reſources,

while

while his army, brave as it was, would be expoſed to all the diſeaſes incident to an unwholeſome climate.

Sir Horatio Nelſon, had been detached by Lord St. Vincent into the Mediterranean with the Vanguard of 74 guns, the Rear-admiral's flag-ſhip; the Orion and Alexander of 74 guns each; two frigates, and a ſloop of war; and on the 8th of June, he received a reinforcement of ten ſail of the line, and a 50 gun ſhip; from which period till the firſt of Auguſt the gallant Admiral was employed in traverſing the Mediterranean in ſearch of the enemy, when a perſon at the top of the main-maſt giving intimation that he diſcovered the whole fleet of French ſhips in a line at the mouth of the Nile. This was no ſooner intimated than the Admiral made diſpoſitions for attacking the enemy; and it is remarkable, and characteriſtic of Britiſh courage, that the tars of Old England no ſooner came in full view of the enemy, than they ſent up three loud huzzas, as if already aſſured of victory!

The French fleet was at anchor in the bay of Aboukir. The Admiral's ſhip carried 120 guns, and above 1,000 men; three had 80 guns; and nine had 74 guns each. They were drawn up near the ſhore in a ſtrong and compact line of battle, flanked by four frigates, and many gun-boats; and protected in the van by a battery, planted on a ſmall iſland. It is ſaid to have been the advice of Bonaparte to Admiral Brueys, to land firſt the army, and then make the beſt of his way back to Toulon, as he was, from the vaſt ſuperiority of the Britiſh marine, extremely apprehenſive for the ſafety of the fleet. The Admiral, however, truſting to his own ſkill in naval affairs, the courage of his men, and above all things, to the almoſt unaſſailable ſituation of his ſquadron, did not coincide in opinion with the commander in chief, and rather choſe to riſk the iſſue of an engagement. Indeed, it has been the opinion of all men ſkilled in nautical affairs, that the ſituation of the French fleet was extremely advantageous for

for defence. Formidable, however, as this mighty barrier of war-ſhips, gun-boats, batteries, and dangerous ſhoals, and in ſight of a victorious army well appointed with cannon and field pieces, was, yet this by no means intimidated the reſolute and daring Britiſh commander from making an attempt upon the enemy's fleet. His ſtrength in ſhips of the line of battle equalled that of the French; and he ſtrengthened his line, by the introduction of a ſhip of fifty guns. He gave the ſignal for part of his ſquadron to get between the enemy's ſhips and the ſhore, and ordered the Culloden to lead the van in this manœuvre. That ſhip, however, happening to ſtrike upon a ſhoal, and from which it could not be extricated till next morning, proved, by this accident, the ſafety of the whole diviſion, as it warned them of their unſeen danger; and three other veſſels which were haſtily advancing in the rear of the Culloden, were thus adviſed of their deſtruction; and retreating, joined the ſquadron in the front of the enemy.

Admiral Nelſon was ſtrongly deſirous of breaking the line of the French, and ſurrounding part of their fleet; and with great nautical ſkill and courage, he effected his purpoſe. The engagement commenced about the ſetting of the ſun; when both parties fought with that intrepidity worthy of their reſpective countries. While the victory was yet undecided, the French admiral Brueys received two wounds; and, having ſhifted his ſituation, he was expoſed to a freſh ſhot, which terminated the gallant Admiral's life. He was of the French nobleſſe; but early in the revolution, he took a decided part with the republicans; and being a brave ſeaman, was reſpected by all parties; and even in the reign of terror, under Robeſpierre, when to have been a noble or ſprung from nobility was the higheſt ſtate crime; yet ſtill Brueys was excepted, and did not periſh amidſt his relations and friends; and nobly fell in the cauſe of his country. When the action had continued for two hours, two of the French ſhips ſtruck; and

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and, ſoon after a third. It was then that the whole van was in the power of the Engliſh ſhips, who furiouſly proceeded to complete their victory. The French admiral's ſhip, L'Orient, was warmly engaged with ſeveral of the Britiſh ſhips at once; when an exploſion indicated the danger of a conflagration. The flames made rapid progreſs, and all endeavours to check their fury and ſave the ſhip proved ineffectual. Admiral Gantheaume, who, after the fall of Brueys, had aſſumed the command, ordered the crew to quit the ſhip and ſave themſelves; and he himſelf alſo ſeaſonably retired; only a ſmall number eſcaped deſtruction, when, in about four hours after the commencement of the engagement, the burning veſſel, when the flames reached the powder-room, blew up with a dreadful exploſion. The fight was carried on at intervals, till day-break; when only two of the French ſhips of the line and two frigates eſcaped deſtruction, or being captured by the Britiſh. Nine ſail of the line were taken, the L'Orient was burnt, and another was likewiſe conſumed, her own captain ſetting her on fire. A frigate was alſo burned by her cammander. Captain Hood, in the zealous, purſued the retiring veſſels of the enemy; but he was ſoon recalled by the Admiral; as all of the ſhips were ſo diſabled by the fight, none of them could ſupport him in the chace.

From the deſperate valour diſplayed on both ſides, it is not to be ſuppoſed that ſuch a victory could be obtained without a conſiderable loſs of lives. In the Britiſh fleet, ſixteen officers, 202 ſeamen and marines, were killed; and 677 were wounded. In the Majeſtic alone fifty were killed, and her commander, captain Weſtcott, alſo fell in the action. The loſs ſuſtained by the French fleet has been variouſly ſtated; but it appears to have been very great; and it could not fail to be ſo. The ſhips being made faſt with chains towards the land, expoſed them to the fire of the Britiſh ſhips in all directions. With regard to the priſoners it is mentioned by Admiral Gantheaume, in an intercepted letter,

ter, that 3,100, of whom 800 were wounded, were reſtored by the Britiſh admiral, who, leaving a part of his fleet to blockade the port of Alexandria, ſailed towards Sicily.

Of this important and deciſive victory, we ſhall, as uſual, give our readers the official account, as ſtated by the brave Admiral himſelf.

This official letter has juſtly been conſidered as one of the moſt beautiful pieces of compoſition ever preſented to the public eye on ſuch an occaſion, as the reader will ſee in a note below *.

The

* *Admiralty-Office, October 2d*, 1798.

The honourable Captain Capel, of his Majeſty's ſloop Mutine, arrived this morning with diſpatches from Rear-admiral Sir Horatio Nelſon, K. B. to Evan Nepean, Eſq.

Vanguard, mouth of the Nile, Auguſt 7th, 1798.

Sir,

Herewith I have the honour to tranſmit you a copy of my letter to the Earl of St. Vincent, together with a line of battle of the Engliſh and French ſquadrons, alſo a liſt of killed and wounded. I have the pleaſure to inform you, that eight of our ſhips have already top-gallant yards a-croſs, and ready for any ſervice; the others, with the prizes, will ſoon be ready for ſea. In an event of this importance, I have thought it right to ſend Captain Capel, with a copy of my letter to the commander in chief, overland, which I hope their Lordſhips will approve; and beg leave to refer them to Captain Capel, who is a moſt excellent officer. and fully able to give every information; and I beg leave to recommend him to their Lordſhip's notice.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HORATIO NELSON.

P. S. The iſland I have taken poſſeſſion of, and brought off the two thirteen-inch mortars, all the braſs guns, and deſtroyed the iron ones.

Evan Nepean, Eſq.

Copy of the letter of Earl St. Vincent, giving an account of the victory gained by the Britiſh fleet, under Rear-admiral Sir Horatio Nelſon.

Van-

The metropolis and neighbourhood were ſplendidly illuminated, and every poſſible demonſtration of joy ſhewn on the news of Admiral Nelſon's victory. A ſub-

Vanguard, off the mouth of the Nile, Auguſt 3d, 1798.

My Lord,

Almighty God has bleſſed his Majeſty's arms in the late battle, by a great victory over the fleet of the enemy, whom I attacked at ſun-ſet, on the 1ſt of Auguſt, off the mouth of the Nile. The enemy were moored in a ſtrong line of battle for defending the entrance of the bay (of Shoals) flanked by numerous gun-boats, four frigates, and a battery of guns and mortars on an iſland in their van; but nothing could withſtand the ſquadron your Lordſhip did me the honour to place under my command. Their high ſtate of diſcipline is well known to you, and with the judgment of the Captains, together with their valour, and that of the officers and men of every deſcription, it was abſolutely irreſiſtible.

Could any thing from my pen add to the characters of the Captains, I would write it with pleaſure, but that is impoſſible.

I have to regret the loſs of Captain Weſtcott, of the Majeſtic, who was killed early in the action; but the ſhip was continued to be ſo well fought by her firſt lieutenant, Mr. Cuthbert, that I have given him an order to command her till your Lordſhip's pleaſure is known.

The ſhips of the enemy, all but their two rear ſhips, are nearly diſmaſted; and thoſe two, with two frigates, I am ſorry to ſay, made their eſcape; nor was it, I aſſure you, in my power to prevent them. Captain Hood moſt handſomely endeavoured to do it, but I had no ſhip in a condition to ſupport the Zealous, and I was obliged to call her in.

The ſupport and aſſiſtance I have received from Captain Berry cannot be ſufficiently expreſſed. I was wounded in the head, and obliged to be carried off the deck, but the ſervice ſuffered no loſs by that event. Captain Berry was fully equal to the important ſervice then going on, and to him I muſt beg leave to refer you for every information relative to this victory. He will preſent you with the flag of the ſecond in command, that of the commander in chief being burnt in the L'Orient.

Herewith I tranſmit you liſts of the killed and wounded, and the lines of battle of ourſelves and the French.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HORATIO NELSON.

To Admiral the Earl of St. Vincent, commander in chief, &c. &c. &c. off Cadiz.

Engliſh

ſubſcription for the relief of the widows and children of the brave ſeamen who fell, was opened at Lloyd's Coffee-houſe on the ſame day the news arrived, and 1,100l. was immediately ſubſcribed.

On

Engliſh line of battle.

Ships' names.	*Guns.*	*Men.*
Culloden	74	590
Theſeus	74	590
Alexander	74	590
Vanguard	74	595
Monitaur	74	640
Leander	50	343
Swiftſure	74	590
Audacious	74	590
Defence	74	590
Zealous	74	590
Orion	74	590
Goliath	74	590
Majeſtic	74	590
Bellerophon	74	590
La Mutine brig.		

French line of battle.

Ships' names.	*Guns.*	*Men.*
Le Guerrier	74	600—taken.
Le Conquerant	74	700—taken.
Le Spartiate	74	700—taken.
L'Aquilon	74	700—taken.
Le Souverain Peuple	74	700—taken.
Le Franklin	80	800—taken.
L'Orient	120	1010—burnt.
Le Tonnant	80	800—taken.
L'Heureux	74	700—taken.
Le Timoleon	74	700—burnt.
Le Mercure	74	700—taken.
Le Guillaume Tell	80	800—eſcaped.
Le Genereux	74	700—eſcaped.
Frigates.		
Le Diane	48	300—eſcaped.
Le Juſtice	44	300—eſcaped.
L'Artemiſe	36	250—burnt.
Le Serieuſe	36	250—diſmaſted and ſunk.

HORATIO NELSON.

[From

On the 2d, the Arabs and Mamelukes, who, during the battle had lined the ſhores of the bay, ſaw with tranſport that the victory was deciſively ours, an event in

[From this ſtatement, it will be ſeen that the enemy's force exceeded ours both in guns and men. The French line of battle, with the frigates by which it was flanked, without counting the gun-boats or the artillery on the iſland in their van, amounted to 1190; our ſquadron mounted, including the Mutine ſloop, 1026, giving an exceſs in favour of the enemy of 164 guns, beſides the guns of the Culloden, which were not fired. There appears to have been a greater diſproportion on our part in the number of men, as our ſhips only carried 8168, and thoſe of the enemy 10,810, making a difference againſt us of 2642 men.]

Vanguard, off the mouth of the Nile, Auguſt 3d, 1798.

A return of the killed and wounded in his Majeſty's ſhips, under the command of Sir Horatio Nelſon, K. B. Rear-admiral of the Blue, in the action with the French at anchor, on the 1ſt of Auguſt, 1798, off the mouth of the Nile.

Ships' names.	*Killed.*	*Wounded.*	*Total.*
Theſeus	5	30	35
Alexander	14	58	72
Vanguard	30	75	105
Monitaur	23	64	87
Swiftſure	7	22	29
Audacious	1	36	37
Defence	4	11	15
Zealous	1	7	8
Orion	13	29	42
Goliath	21	41	62
Majeſtic	50	143	193
Bellerophon	49	148	197
Leander	—	14	14
Grand Total	218	678	896

Officers killed.

Vanguard.—Captain Taddy, marines; Mr. Thomas Seymour, and Mr. John G. Taylor, midſhipmen.

Alexander.—Mr. John Collins, lieutenant.

Orion.—Mr. Baird, captain's clerk,

Goliath.—Mr. William Davies, maſter's mate; Mr. Andrew Brown, midſhipman.

Majeſtic.

in which they participated with an exultation almoſt equal to the Britiſh; and on that and the two following nights, the whole coaſt and country were illuminated as far as they could ſee, in celebration of the victory. This had a great effect upon the minds of their priſoners, as they conceived this illumination was the conſequence not entirely of our ſucceſs at ſea, but of ſome ſignal advantage obtained by the Arabs and Mamelukes over Bonaparte.

The gallant Admiral, in gratitude to the Supreme Being for the ſignal ſucceſs which had crowned his endeavours in the cauſe of his country, on the morning of the 2d, iſſued the following memorandum to the different captains of his ſquadron.

MEM.

"*Vanguard, off the mouth of the Nile, 2d day of Auguſt*, 1798.

"Almighty God having bleſſed his Majeſty's arms with victory, the Admiral intends returning public thankſ-

Majeſtic.—George B. Weſtcott, Captain; Mr. Zebedee Ford, midſhipman; Mr. Andrew Gilmore, boatſwain.

Bellerophon.—Mr. Robert S. Daniel, Mr. William Lauder, and Mr. George Joliffe, lieutenants; Mr. Thomas Elliſon, maſter's mate.

Monitaur.—Lieutenant J. S. Kirchner, maſter; Mr. Peter Walters, maſter's mate.

Officers wounded.

Vanguard.—Two lieutenants; admiral's clerk; one boatſwain; two midſhipmen.

Theſeus.—One lieutenant.

Alexander.—The captain; a captain of the marines; the maſter; two midſhipmen.

Audacious.—One lieutenant; one gunner.

Orion.—The captain; one boatſwain; three midſhipmen.

Goliath.—One lieutenant; two midſhipmen; the ſchoolmaſter.

Majeſtic.—Two midſhipmen; the captain's clerk.

Bellerophon.—The captain; maſter; captain of marines; one boatſwain; one midſhipman.

Monitaur.—Two lieutenants: the maſter; one midſhipman.

Swiftſure.—One midſhipman.

HORATIO NELSON.

Earl St. Vincent.

thankſgiving for the ſame at two o'clock this day, and he recommends every ſhip doing the ſame as ſoon as convenient.

"*To the reſpective captains of the ſquadron.*"

Accordingly, at two o'clock on that day, public ſervice was performed on the quarter deck of the Vanguard, by the Rev. Mr. Comyn, the other ſhips following the example of the Admiral, though perhaps not all at the ſame time.

This ſolemn act of gratitude to heaven, ſeemed to make a very deep impreſſion upon ſeveral of the priſoners, both officers and men, ſome of the former of whom remarked, "that it was no wonder they could preſerve ſuch order and diſcipline, when they could impreſs the minds of their men with ſuch ſentiments after a victory ſo great, and at a moment of ſuch ſeeming confuſion."

On the ſame day the following memorandum was iſſued to all the ſhips, expreſſive of the Admiral's ſentiments of the noble exertions of the different officers and men of his ſquadron:

"*Vanguard, off the mouth of the Nile, 2d day of Auguſt*, 1798.

"The Admiral moſt heartily congratulates the captains, officers, ſeamen, and marines, of the ſquadron he has the honour to command, on the event of the late action; and he deſires they will accept of his moſt ſincere and cordial thanks for their very gallant behaviour in this glorious battle. It muſt ſtrike forcibly every Britiſh ſeaman, how ſuperior their conduct is, when in diſcipline and good order, to the riotous behaviour of lawleſs Frenchmen.

"The ſquadron may be aſſured the Admiral will not fail, with his diſpatches, to repreſent their truly meritorious conduct in the ſtrongeſt terms to the commander in chief,

"*To the captains of the ſhips of the ſquadron.*"

Copy

Copy of an intercepted letter from E. Poussielque, comptroller-general of the expences of the Eastern army, and administrator-general of finance, to a friend at Paris; dated Rosetta, in Egypt, 17th Thermidor, sixth year of the French republic, (August 3) 1798.

"We have just been witness, my dear friend, to a naval combat, the most bloody and unfortunate that for many ages has taken place.

"The French squadron, consisting of thirteen sail of the line, one of which was a three-decker of 120 guns, and three others of 80, were anchored in line of battle in the bay of Aboukir, or Canope, the only one on all the coast of Egypt. For eight days past, several ships and frigates belonging to the English, have at different times been in sight, reconnoitering the position of our fleet, so that we have been in continual expectation of being attacked. In a direct line from Aboukir to Rosetta, the distance is about four leagues and a half; from the height to the latter place, our fleet is perfectly seen and distinguished.—The 14th of this month, at half past five o'clock in the evening, we heard the firing of cannon: this was the commencement of the battle. We immediately got on the terraces, on the tops of houses, and on other eminences, whence we plainly perceived ten English ships of the line; the others we could not see. The cannonade was very heavy until about a quarter after nine o'clock, when, favoured by the night, we perceived an immense light, which announced to us that some ship was on fire. At this time the thunder of cannon was heard with redoubled fury, and at ten the ship on fire blew up with the most dreadful explosion, which was heard at Rosetta in the same manner as the explosion of the Grenelle at Paris. When this accident happened, the most profound silence took place for the space of about ten minutes; from the moment of the explosion until our hearing it might take up about two minutes. The firing commenced again, and continued without intermission until three in the morning: it ceased almost entirely until

until five, when it commenced again with as great violence as ever.

"I placed myſelf on a tower about cannon ſhot from Roſetta, and which is called Aboul Mandour, whence I could diſtinctly ſee the whole battle. At eight o'clock I perceived a ſhip on fire, and in about half an hour ſhe blew up ſimilar to the other, laſt night. The other ſhips moved to a greater diſtance from the ſhore, and the fire on board her apparently diminiſhed, by which we preſume it was entirely extinguiſhed. During this time the cannonading redoubled. A large ſhip, entirely diſmaſted, was on ſhore on the coaſt; we perceived others among the fleet, in a ſimilar manner diſmaſted; but the two ſquadrons ſo mingled among each other, that it was impoſſible to diſtinguiſh French from Engliſh, or on whoſe ſide the advantage was. The firing continued with unabating ardour until two o'clock after mid-day on the 15th, and at this hour we perceived two ſail of the line and two frigates under a preſs of ſail on a wind, ſtanding to the eaſtward. We perceived that the whole four were under French colours. No other veſſel made any movement, and the firing ceaſed entirely. Towards ſix o'clock in the evening I returned to the Tower of Aboul Mandour, to reconnitre the poſition of the two fleets. It was the ſame as at two o'clock. The four ſhips under weigh were abreaſt of the mouth of the Nile. We knew not what to think or conjecture. Twenty-four hours paſſed without having any perſon to give us any details, and in our ſituation it was impoſſible to procure any by land on account of the Arabs, who were aſſembled between Roſetta and Aboukir.—There was nothing to be learnt by ſea, on account of the difficulty of getting out of the opening or branch of the Nile. You may judge of our impatience and perplexity. Nothing good could be augured from this ſilence; however, we were obliged to paſs the whole of the night of the 15th in this incertitude; and at laſt, on the morning of the 16th, a boat which left Alexandria in the night, gave us ſome

details, though little tending to our comfort. They told us, that the officers of the French fleet, who ſaved themſelves in a boat, arrived at Alexandria, had reported, that in the commencement of the battle Admiral Brueys had received two ſevere wounds, the firſt on the head, the ſecond in the body; that notwithſtanding he perſiſted in keeping his ſtation on the arm-cheſt, and that a third ſhot took him in the body and cut him in two; at the ſame moment a ſhot took off the captain of the ſhip, Caſabianca; that at this time they perceived the ſhip to be on fire in ſuch a manner as not to be able to extinguiſh it, and at laſt that the ſhip had blown up about ten o'clock at night; they added, that our fleet was totally deſtroyed and loſt, with the exception of the four ſhips eſcaped. I returned to the town, where I found things abſolutely in the ſame ſituation as yeſterday. They continued ſo laſt night and this morning.

"I have now to ſay how they appeared to our view from the caſtle of Aboukir:—The firſt ſhip is without maſts, and under Engliſh colours; the ſecond and third are in a good ſtate, but I cannot diſtinguiſh their's; the fourth has loſt one maſt; the fifth in good ſtate, and with Engliſh colours; the ſixth loſt her top-maſt (this morning ſhe hoiſted her fore-top-maſt ſtay-ſail, and ſet ſome after-ſail) the ſeventh is without top-gallant-maſts; the eighth diſmaſted; ninth, ditto; with the exception of her bowſprit; tenth, eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth, form a kind of groupe, having only ſeven maſts among them; fourteenth, only her fore-maſt; fifteenth, has loſt her fore and mizen top-gallant-maſts; ſixteenth, is entirely diſmaſted; ſeventeenth, loſt her mizen top-gallant-maſts; eighteenth, has only her fore-maſt; nineteenth, twentieth, and twenty-firſt, form a groupe, with only four maſts among them, and theſe without top-gallant-maſts; twenty-ſecond, entirely diſmaſted and on ſhore; ſhe has Engliſh colours up; the people on board her are trying to get her afloat, and to raiſe other maſts;—the twenty-

twenty-third is in a good ſtate, and under Engliſh colours; the twenty-fourth is alſo in a good ſtate. This is all that I can diſtinguiſh; from which it reſults, that, though the Engliſh have had the advantage, they have been very roughly handled. They could not follow the veſſels that went away on the 15th.

"For theſe two days theſe ſhips have been perfectly inactive, and ſeemingly deſtroyed; this morning news has arrived to us from Alexandria, which confirms our loſſes; Rear-admiral de Breſt is killed, alſo Vice-admiral Blanquet Duchalia; five ſhips have ſtruck their colours. The Tonnant was the laſt ſhip in action; Dupetitar, who commanded her, had his two legs carried off by a cannon ſhot. The ſhips eſcaped are the Guillaume Tell, and the frigates Diane and Juſtice. They ſay it was the Artemiſe that blew up the morning before yeſterday; many things relative to this battle are yet to learn. They ſay that the Engliſh admiral has ſent a flag of truce to Alexandria, demanding that they ſhould receive and take care of the wounded, which amount to 1,509. As yet I am ignorant of what has been decided on.

"You will receive in France the official accounts of us and of the Engliſh; I know not what they will ſay, but you may rely on what I have written, becauſe it is what I have ſeen."

In conſequence of the victory at Aboukir-bay, the following article appeared in the London Gazette.

Conſtantinople, September 8.

Immediately upon receiving the news of the victory off the mouth of the Nile, the Grand Signior directed a ſuperb diamond *aigrette* (called a *Chelengh*, or plume of triumph), taken from one of the imperial turbans, to be ſent to Admiral Sir Horatio Nelſon, together with a piece of ſable fur of the firſt quality. He directed alſo a purſe of 2,000 zequins to be diſtributed among the Britiſh ſeamen wounded at the battle of the Nile.

The

The following is a tranſlation of the note delivered to Mr. Smith, his majeſty's miniſter plenipotentiary, upon the occaſion:—"It is but lately that, by a written communication, it has been made known how much the Sublime Porte rejoiced at the firſt advice received of the Engliſh ſquadron in the White ſea, having defeated the French ſquadron off Alexandria, in Egypt. By recent accounts, comprehending a ſpecific detail of the action, it appears now more poſitive, that his Britannic Majeſty's fleet has actually deſtroyed by that action the beſt ſhips the French had in their poſſeſſion.—This joyful event, therefore, laying this empire under an obligation, and the ſervice rendered by our much eſteemed friend Admiral Nelſon, on this occaſion, being of a nature to call for public acknowledgment, his Imperial Majeſty, the Powerful, Formidable, and Moſt Magnificent Grand Signior, has deſtined as a preſent, in his Imperial name, to the ſaid Admiral, a diamond aigrette, (chelengh) and a ſabel fur with broad ſleeves; beſides 2,000 zequins to be diſtributed among the wounded of his crew. And as the Engliſh miniſter is conſtantly zealous to contribute, by his endeavours, to the increaſe of friendſhip between the two courts, it is hoped he will not fail to make known this circumſtance to his court, and to ſolicit the permiſſion of England for the ſaid Admiral to put on and wear the ſaid aigrette and pelice."

The following account alſo of the Admiral's reception at Naples, appeared in the London Gazette of November 13.

"The King of Naples not only went off to meet the Admiral, but inſtantly went on board the Vanguard, and ſtaid on board until that veſſel was at anchor in the port. The royal ſalute was given by all the King's ſhips, both on his Sicilian Majeſty's arrival on board the Vanguard, and on his leaving the ſhip. The day being remarkably fine, numerous boats with colours and muſic, attended the Vanguard, and all the ſhores and wharfs of Naples were crouded with a multitude

titude of rejoicing people; and, when the Admiral came on ſhore, the reception the Neapolitans gave him was expreſſive of the utmoſt kindneſs and gratitude."

The honourable Captain Capel waited on the honourable the Lord Mayor, with the ſword of the French admiral, M. Blanquet, which was ſurrendered in the late naval combat to Sir Horatio Nelſon, and intended by that gallant commander as a preſent to the city of London, accompanied with the following letter:

Vanguard, off the mouth of the Nile,
Auguſt 8th, 1798.

My Lord,

Having the honour of being a freeman of the city of London, I take the liberty of ſending to your Lordſhip the ſword of the commanding French admiral, M. Blanquet, who ſurvived after the battle of the 1ſt, off the Nile; and requeſt that the city of London will honour me with the acceptance of it, as a remembrance that Britannia ſtill rules the waves; which, that ſhe may ever do, is the fervent prayer of

Your Lordſhip's moſt obedient ſervant,
HORATIO NELSON.

On the 10th.—At a court of common council, held this day, the Lord Mayor, after the opening of the court, laid before them the letter he had received from Lord Nelſon, and preſented the ſword to the court, which was received with unbounded applauſe. It was agreed to refer it to a committee of all the aldermen, and a commoner out of each ward, to conſider the beſt manner of diſpoſing of the ſword, and report it to the next court. It was then unanimouſly reſolved, that an humble and dutiful addreſs be preſented to his Majeſty, on the glorious victory over the French by his Majeſty's fleet off the Nile, on the firſt of Auguſt laſt, under the command of Sir Horatio Nelſon, K. B. Rear-admiral of the Blue, now Baron Nelſon of the Nile

Nile. The ſheriffs were deſired to wait on the King to know his royal will and pleaſure when the court ſhould attend. The court thanked the ſheriffs for their very polite offer to go immediately to his Majeſty at Weymouth, on the occaſion; and it was referred to a committee, to conſider of the moſt reſpectful and beſt method of the court for conveying to the gallant Lord Nelſon, officers, and ſeamen, the high ſenſe of their meritorious ſervices.

On the 16th, at a court of common council held this day, the committee appointed to conſider of the beſt manner of diſpoſing of the ſword preſented to the court by Admiral Lord Nelſon, reported the following reſolution, which was agreed to unanimouſly: that the ſword delivered up to our gallant hero, Lord Nelſon, by the French admiral, M. Blanquet, be put up in the moſt conſpicuous place in the common council chamber, with the following inſcription.

"The ſword of M. Blanquet, the commanding French admiral in the glorious engagement off the Nile, on the 1ſt of Auguſt, 1798—preſented to the court by the right honourable Rear-admiral Lord Nelſon."

The Lord Mayor was requeſted to communicate to Lord Nelſon the high ſenſe which the court entertained of the invaluable preſent of this ſword. The thanks of the court, and a ſword of the value of 200 guineas, were ordered to be preſented to Lord Nelſon; and the Lord Mayor was requeſted to order the ſame, and preſent it to the victorious Admiral. The thanks of the court were alſo ordered to be given to Captain Berry, and the captains, officers, and ſeamen, for their important ſervices; and it was reſolved that the freedom of the city of London ſhould be preſented to Captain Berry, in a gold box value 100 guineas.

On the occaſion of theſe brilliant ſervices, his Majeſty immediately beſtowed the title of Baron on the Admiral.

Admiral

J.Kidd Sculp. Edinr.

ADMIRAL LORD NELSON

Engraved for Vint & Anderson's History of the War

Admiral Nelſon, now Baron Nelſon of the Nile, is the ſon of the Rev. Mr. Nelſon, of Burnham Thorpe, near Holkham, in Norfolk; and is ſaid to be related to the Walpole family.—Admiral Nelſon entered early into the ſervice, was a lieutenant in 1777, and a poſt-captain in 1779.

Lady Nelſon was the widow of a Weſt Indian gentleman, and niece to Mr. Herbert, late governor of Nevis, at which iſland ſhe was married to Sir Horatio, and had the honour to be given away by his royal highneſs the Duke of Clarence.

Lord Nelſon was lieutenant with Sir Peter Parker, in the American war, on board the Briſtol, of 50 guns, and was on board when Sir Peter was battering Charlestown.

That the harbour of Alexandria was not proper for the reception of the French fleet, will appear from the account of that city and its port:

Alexandria, in Egypt, has a ſtrange appearance at the firſt ſight, the buildings looking with the appearance of new ſtone, in fortified places, much alike in conſtruction. The ponderous ruins of the old city, built by Alexander's order, are at the one end, and a very extenſive caſtle at the other. The top of Pompey's grand pillar is ſeen elevated on high, between them. The ſhore being very ſandy and level with the ſea, nothing of the beach is ſeen till veſſels are almoſt in the harbour, where their lying is very precarious, the port being little ſheltered, and very rocky in the bottom, inſomuch that it is neceſſary to under-run every cable, and to anchor, or rather moor, oppoſite to the caſtle, with two anchors a-head, and two a-ſtern; the cables veered out, and laſhed to others, as far as they are carried, with a buoy to each laſhing. Thus, the cables croſs each other like net-work, and would employ one ſhip's company at leaſt two days to anchor; but it is a rule obſerved by ſhips moored thus in the harbour, to ſend as many men as can be ſpared, to aſſiſt a veſſel coming to the harbour. This is ſo much

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expoſed, and the ſwell at times ſo great, that the ſhips occaſionally ſtrike lower yards and top-maſts; and if one anchor draws home, there are often ten or more follow, they are ſo connected with each other, and the only chance in that caſe, for ſhip and cargo, is to cut the cables and run to ſea. No boats are ſuffered to come off, or land at ſuch a time, as the Turks wiſh ſhips may be loſt for the ſake of plunder. Water is ſcarce, and purchaſed dear, being ſometimes mixed with ſalt water, to increaſe the profits. The Alexandrians are reckoned to be a thieviſh ſet of people, and their harbour as bad as any one in the Mediterranean, although numbers of veſſels from different nations trade thither.

It is deemed no way intereſting, and would detain the attention of our readers too much, to enumerate all the ſmall captures of the enemy's veſſels at this period.—We will only mention the moſt material.

Captain Caulfield, in the Peterel ſloop, captured Le Leopard French letter of marque, of 12 ſix-pounders, 14 ſwivels, and 100 men. Captain Dacres, in the Aſtrea, has taken the Renommee French ſchooner privateer, of 5 nine-pounders, and 54 men.—And Captain Woollaſton, in the Cruizer ſloop has captured Le Chaſſeur Republican lugger, of 4 guns, and 48 men. Le Dragon lugger, in her company, threw her boat and other things overboard, and eſcaped.

A diſpatch from Rear-admiral Harvey, dated Fort Royal Bay, Martinique, incloſed an account of the capture of the Violetta French privateer ſloop, of 6 guns, and 36 men, by the Amphitrite; and another privateer of 4 guns, and 39 men, by the garland tender, of 6 guns, and 18 men.

Likewiſe a letter from Vice-admiral Kingſmill, dated at Cork, gave an account of the following captures made by Sir Thomas Williams, captain of the Endymion, viz. Le Revanche French ſchooner privateer, of 12 braſs ſix-pounders, and 88 men. Le Brutus French lugger privateer, of 6 ſix-pounders, and 50 men. The

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St. Antonia Spaniſh ſchooner, pierced for 16 guns, had 6 ſix-pounders only mounted, laſt from the Havannah, and charged with diſpatches from thence and South America, for Spain; the diſpatches were thrown overboard, attached to one of the veſſel's anchors, but were recovered by the Endymion's boat. Les Huit Amis French ſhip privateer, of 20 ſix-pounders, and 160 men.

Sir Francis Laforey, captain of his Majeſty's ſhip Hydra, had a very gallant action with the French frigate La Confiante, and Veſuve, a corvette, both of which were forced on ſhore, together with a cutter that accompanied them.

On the 31ſt of June, Captain Halſted, of the Phœnix, took the Caroline French privateer, and re-captured the Henry, of Liverpool, her prize. The Caroline was a very fine ſhip, coppered, and a fleet ſailer, of 20 guns, twelve and ſix-pounders, but moſt of them thrown overboard in the chaſe; her crew conſiſting of 105 men, out ten days from Nantz, and had captured a Daniſh ſhip, beſide the Henry, a valuable ſhip, bound to Jamaica.

Captain Hood, of his Majeſty's ſloop the Hound, on the 14th of June, captured the Dutch lugger, Seahound, of 14 guns; and a ſquadron under Sir Hyde Parker, captured four French privateers, mounting twenty-four guns among them, in the Weſt Indies, where Lieutenant Roſs, of his Majeſty's ſchooner Recovery, captured Le Ravanche, a French privateer of 12 guns, and 45 men, after engaging her moſt of an hour. She belonged to Cape Francois, and had taken ten veſſels that cruize, and nineteen the preceding one. The lieutenant alſo captured the French privateer ſchooner L'Incredule, with two long ſix-pounder guns, and four ſwivels, manned with thirty-three men.

His Majeſty's ſhip, the Shannon, captured and ſent into Cork, La Julie, a fine French privateer, of 18 guns, and 120 men; had ſailed from Nantz, but laſt from

men. In the night of the ſame day, a felucca, with twenty-two men, ſuddenly appeared along ſide of the Jerſeyman, determined to board him; but a broadſide from the Herald ſent them all to the bottom. On his arrival at Naples, Pickſtock received the higheſt marks of reſpect and attention, for his glorious conduct, from all ranks of people. Prince Auguſtus, of England, honoured him two or three times with an invitation to breakfaſt, and preſented him with a ſword of conſiderable value, in teſtimony of his royal highneſs's approbation of his intrepidity:—Mr. Veers, a gentleman of his ſuite, gave the gallant captain a pair of piſtols; and Sir William Hamilton, our ambaſſador, received him repeatedly at his table. The Engliſh merchants there, with that liberality which diſtinguiſhes gentlemen of that nation in every quarter of the globe, preſented the crew with 200 dollars.

The following is an authentic account of the brilliant action lately fought by his majeſty's ſhips Arrogant and Victorious, with Admiral Serizy's ſquadron, on the coaſt of Sumatra, in the Eaſt Indies: the two ſhips fell in with the French ſquadron off Acheen Head, conſiſting of Le Forte, Admiral Serizy, carrying 52 guns, viz. 30 twenty-four-pounders on her deck, the reſt long French twelves and heavy carronades, and manned with 480 picked men; Le Virtu, of 40 guns, commanded by Captain L'Hermit, an officer who had particularly diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the North ſea; Le Regeneu, of 40, Le Seine, of 36 guns, all extremely well manned.—The wind was light, and continued ſo at the commencement and during the action. The Arrogant, after a few broadſides, ſeparated, and the Victorious ſupported the action alone againſt the four, forty-five minutes, cloſe on board, in which time, from the tightneſs of the wind, and the advantage the frigates had by their ſweeps and boats, ſhe received ſeveral raking fires, which ſhattered her ſtern and quarters a great deal, but not attended with that loſs of men as might have been expected. Seeing the little impreſ-

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ſion they made, the Admiral judged it prudent to ſheer off, which they effected by their ſweeps, and all the boats of the ſquadron towing a-head. They made their attack on the victorious in the moſt reſolute manner; Le Seine, though the ſmalleſt, determined to board, and rigged her booms out for that purpoſe; but a well-directed broad-ſide from the Victorious killed her captain, and about 80 of her crew fell, or were wounded with it; and, before ſhe could get from under the Victorious's guns, was hulled upwards of eighty times. Although the very fortunate circumſtance of the light wind to the frigates allowed them to get off, yet the conſequences of this defeat were at that time of the firſt importance in India: it forced the French ſquadron to Mergui, at a time when both coaſts were open to their depredations; and, on a report of their condition to Admiral Serizy, from the conſequences of this action, he was forced to Batavia, where three of the frigates were obliged to undergo a thorough repair; and it ſo diſappointed the proſpects of their cruize, that from Batavia they returned to the iſlands, and did not again ſail from thence till the 18th of Auguſt, 1797.

At this period the brave Sir Sidney Smith, and his companion Mr. Wright, made their eſcape from priſon in France, of which the following is an authentic information.

Finding that all hopes of an honourable exchange were vaniſhed, from the rancour which the directory conſtantly manifeſted towards the above officer, a plan was formed in this country to effect his eſcape, and a foreigner of ſome diſtinction undertook to make the attempt. He went to Paris, and, having procured ſome blank warrants uſed in the office of the miniſter of police for the delivery of priſoners, he obtained a forged ſignature of the miniſter, directed to the gaoler of the temple, extremely well executed, to deliver up to the bearers of it, who were national guards, the perſons of Sir Sidney Smith and Mr. Wright, that they might

might be conveyed to another priſon. Four perſons, in whom confidence could be placed, were accordingly employed to repreſent national guards, in which habit they went to the gaoler of the temple, with a forged warrant for the delivery of the priſoners, who were accordingly delivered up, and put into a hackney coach. So well was the eſcape conducted, that, though this event happened on the evening of the 24th of April, it was not even known to the directory till the 4th of May, at which time Sir Sidney was out of the limits of the republic.

Mr. Wright is a midſhipman; he was Sir Sidney's ſecretary on board the Diamond, taken priſoner with him, and has been his conſtant companion in the temple. When they had proceeded through three ſtreets, agreeable to a preconcerted plan, a cry was raiſed that the coach was running over a child, a woman ſhrieked, the coach ſtopped, and in the confuſion that enſued the priſoners jumped out, and mixed with the crowd. They walked on foot through ſeveral ſtreets, until they came near the Boulevades, where a chaiſe was in readineſs to carry them off. They were provided with paſſports in fictitious names, and a guide, and, ſpeaking the French language fluently, met with no interruption. They halted five days in a little town not far from the metropolis, until proper meaſures could be taken to ſecure their retreat to the coaſt; they were near two days more in the woods near Havre. They at length found a ſmall boat in a creek, which led to the mouth of the harbour of Havre, and, jumping into it, rowed out to ſea. They had ſeen Sir R. Strachan's ſquadron from the heights about the town, and therefore knew the direction they were to take after getting on board the boat, in which they embarked about twelve o'clock at night; at three the next morning they deſcried the Argo frigate, Captain Bowen, and, hoiſting a white handkerchief as a ſignal, were fortunately obſerved, and taken on board. Captain Bowen, determined to ſet the gallant knight immediately on his

his native land, and accordingly ſailed for Portſmouth, where they arrived on Saturday evening, May 5, 1798; and the next morning Sir Sydney, Mr. Wright, and the guide, ſet off for London, amidſt the acclamations of the inhabitants and ſeamen, who took the horſes from his chaiſe, and drew him out of the town in triumph.

Sir Sidney Smith had been in confinement rather more than two years, having been captured in April, 1796.

The directory had refuſed every overture for the releaſe of Sir Sydney, unleſs 4,000 French ſeamen were given in exchange.

We ſhall now take a view of the operations of our armies by land; in the contemplation of which we will find, along with our cauſes of exultation, on account of our victories by ſea, many circumſtances painful to humanity, by the dreadful profuſion and waſte of human life.

From the London Gazette, July 21ſt, 1798.

Parliament-ſtreet, July 21ſt.—The diſpatches, of which the following are copies, were received on the 17th, by the right honourable Henry Dundas, one of his Majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, from Major-generals Coote and Burrard.

Oſtend, June 23d, 1798.

Sir,

Not having had it in my power to ſend my diſpatches by my aid-de-camp, Captain Williamſon, I take the opportunity by Mr. Jobernes, the ſtaff-ſurgeon, who was ordered to Oſtend by his royal highneſs the commander in chief.

I have the honour to be, &c.

EYRE COOTE, Major-general.

Right honourable Henry Dundas.

On

On a ridge of ſand hills, three miles to the eaſt of Oſtend, May 19th, 1798.

Sir,

I have the moſt ſincere ſatisfaction to acquaint you of the complete and brilliant ſucceſs attending the expedition entruſted by his Majeſty to the care of Captain Popham, of the royal navy, and myſelf: the ſquadron reached Oſtend about one o'clock this morning.

The able and judicious arrangement of Captain Popham, and great exertions of himſelf, the officers, and ſeamen, under his command, enabled us to diſembark the troops at the place from which I have the honour of dating this diſpatch; and from Captain Popham's local knowledge, I gained ſuch information, as very much removed the difficulties we had to encounter on the ſhore, and contributed much to the ſucceſs of the enterprize.

General Sir Charles Grey ſent you, ſir, an outline of the diſpoſition of the troops, and of our plans, previous to our ſailing from Margate; theſe were carried into execution, with a little alteration, which I was obliged to make in conſequence of the whole of the troops not having landed.

Soon after we diſembarked, I detached Major-general Burrard, with four companies of light infantry of the guards, the 23d, and 49th grenadiers, and two ſix-pounders, to take poſſeſſion of the different poſts and paſſes that it was neceſſary to occupy to enable us to carry our plans into execution.

In effecting this, he met with ſtrong oppoſition from a conſiderable body of ſharp ſhooters, who were gallantly repulſed with ſome loſs, and, by a rapid march, cut off from the town of Oſtend. During the time Lieutenant Brownrigg, of the engineers, was employed in bringing up the powder and other combuſtibles, to effect the deſtruction of the ſluices of the Bruges canal, the troops were poſted as follows:—the grenadiers of the 11th and 23d regiments, with cannon, &c. at

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the lower ferry. A detachment of Colonel Campbell's company of the guards, under the command of Captain Duff, and the grenadiers of the 49th regiment, under the command of Captain Lord Aylmer, at the upper ferry. The remainder of Colonel Campbell's, with three other companies of the guards, under the command of Colonel Calcroft, at the ſluices, and country around, to cover the operation. The 11th regiment on the ſouth-eaſt front, to ſecure a ſafe retreat for the troops, if preſſed. The light infantry companies of the 11th and 23d regiments, under Major Donkin, to cover the village of Bredin, and extend to the Blankenburg road, near the ſea, as well as to co-operate with the 11th regiment.

The greater part of the 23d regiment remained on board the ſhips of war, ſtationed to the weſtward of the town, as well to divert the enemy's attention to that point, as to land and ſpike the cannon, ſhould an opportunity offer.

By the time the troops were properly poſted, the neceſſary materials were brought up to the ſluices, by the indefatigable exertions and extraordinary good conduct of Captains Winthrop, Brady, and M'Kellar, and Lieutenant Brady, of the royal navy, whoſe ſervices on ſhore cannot be too highly praiſed.

Lieutenant Brownrigg, of the royal engineers, in about four hours, made all his arrangements, and completely deſtroyed the ſluices; his mines having in every particular the deſired effect; and the object of the expedition thereby attained; and, I have the ſatisfaction to add, with only the loſs of five men killed and wounded. Several veſſels of conſiderable burden were alſo deſtroyed in the canal near the ſluices. No danger, even for an inſtant, abated the ardour of the ſeamen and ſoldiers; to their unanimity and co-operation, his Majeſty and the country are indebted for our ſucceſs.

No language of mine can do juſtice to the forces employed upon this occaſion; and, as it is impoſſible to name each individual, I beg leave to ſtate the great

exertions of a few. To that excellent officer, Major-general Burrard, I ſhall feel everlaſting obligation; to his council, exertion, and abilities, I am in a great meaſure to attribute the ſucceſs of the enterprize.

[Here follows an enumeration of the various parts of arduous duty, performed by a great many officers employed in this undertaking—with which we will not take up our readers attention.]

As a feint to cover the operation of bringing up the materials, and of deſtroying the ſluices, Captain Popham and myſelf, ſent a ſummons to the commandant of Oſtend, to ſurrender the town and its dependencies to his Majeſty's forces under our command, which had the deſired effect. I have the honour to encloſe you a copy of the ſummons, with the commandant's anſwer.

Copy of the ſummons ſent for the town of Oſtend, &c. to ſurrender. Dated eaſt of the harbour of Oſtend, May 19th, 1798.

Sir,

We, the officers commanding the ſea and land forces of his Majeſty, the King of Great Britain, think it neceſſary to appriſe, that we ſhall be obliged to bombard and cannonade the town of Oſtend, unleſs you, as commandant ſhall immediately ſurrender the ſame, with its dependencies, troops, and military ſtores, belonging to the republic, to the arms of our ſovereign.

We leave you to take into your ſerious conſideration the very formidable force now lying before the town and port of Oſtend, as you cannot but be reſponſible for the conſequences of a vain and fruitleſs reſiſtance.

We are willing to grant half an hour for your full conſideration of the above terms; and are convinced that your humanity and good ſenſe will point out the neceſſary ſteps to be taken, to accede to our propoſals

poſals; as, in default thereof, we ſhall be under the neceſſity of immediately commencing hoſtilities.

We have the honour to be, &c.

EYRE COOTE, Major general.
HOME POPHAM, Captain R. N.

To his excellency the commandant of Oſtend.

Tranſlation of the commandant of Oſtend's anſwer to the ſummons.

Liberty. Equality.

Garriſon of Oſtend, 30th Floreal, 6th year of the republic.

Muſcar, commandant of the garriſon of Oſtend, to the commander in chief of the troops of his Britannic Majeſty.

General,

The council of war was ſitting when I received the honour of your letter; we have unanimouſly reſolved not to ſurrender this place until we ſhall have been buried under its ruins.

(Signed) MUSCAR,
Commandant of the garriſon.

Oſtend, May 20th, 1798.

Sir,

Major-general Coote, in his diſpatch yeſterday, had the honour to inform you of the brilliant ſucceſs of the enterpriſe of which he had the command, as far as related to the deſtruction of the gates and ſluices of the canal of Bruges.

The General having been ſeverely wounded this morning, I have the painful taſk of detailing our unavoidable ſurrender ſoon after.

On our return yeſterday to the beach, at eleven o'clock, A. M. where we had diſembarked, we found, that from an increaſe of wind and ſurf, our communi-

cation

cation with the fleet was nearly cut off, and that it was impoſſible to re-embark the troops. The General, well aware of the riſk we ran in ſtaying in an enemy's country, naturally exaſperated againſt us for the damage we had recently done them, attempted to get off ſome companies; but the boats ſoon filled with water; and it was with extreme difficulty the lives of the men were ſaved. It then became neceſſary carefully to examine the ground we were likely to fight upon; and ſuch a choice was made as might have enſured us ſucceſs, had any thing like an equal force preſented itſelf.

Major-General Coote took every precaution that the evening and the night afforded, to make our poſt among the ſand hills upon the ſhore as tenable as poſſible, by directing Lieutenant Brownrigg, of the royal engineers, to make ſmall entrenchments where it was neceſſary, and by planting the few field pieces, and the howitzer we had, on the moſt favourable ſpots, to annoy the enemy in their approach to attack us.

In momentary expectation of them, we impatiently looked for a favourable opportunity to get into our boats; but unfortunately it never preſented itſelf.

About four o'clock this morning (the wind and ſurf having encreaſed during the night) we plainly perceived two ſtrong columns of the enemy advancing on our front; and ſoon after we found ſeveral other columns upon our flanks.

The action began by a cannonade from their horſe-artillery, and was anſwered by our field pieces and howitzer, with great animation. Our artillery was admirably ſerved; and had not the enemy ſoon after turned our flanks, which, from their very great numbers, could not be prevented, they would have paid dear indeed for any advantage their ſuperiority in numbers gave them.

The force they employed, we have ſince found, were aſſembled from Ghent, Bruges, and Dunkirk; and General Coote and myſelf were very ſoon convinced that our caſe was deſperate; and that we had no choice left

left but to defend our poſt, ſuch as it was, for the honour of his Majeſty's arms, as long as we are able. We maintained this very ſevere and unequal conflict for nearly two hours, in which extreme hot fire was interchanged, particularly on our left, which, as well as our right, was now completely turned. Wiſhing, however, to make one ſtrong effort, Major-general Coote ordered Major Donkin, of the 44th regiment, on the left, with a company of light infantry, to endeavour to turn that flank of the enemy which had moſt impreſſion upon us; and Colonel Campbell, with his own light company of the guards, to effect the ſame purpoſe by a concealed and rapid march round the ſand hills. The uncommon exertions of theſe two invaluable officers, when the ſignal was given for them to advance, are above all praiſe; their companies in the attempt were much cut down; and Colonel Campbell, Major Donkin, and Captain Duff, were wounded. About this time Major-general Coote perceived that part of the 11th regiment, towards our left, had given way, and was likely to diſtreſs the other parts of the front neareſt to it. At the moment he was endeavouring to rally them, and had put himſelf at their head, to regain the loſt and advantageous ground from which they had retreated, at that moſt critical criſis, when moſt conſpicuous for gallantry and conduct, he received a very ſevere wound in the thigh; and being unable to go on, he ſent for me from the right, where I was ſtationed.

We both found that our front was broken, and our flanks completely turned, the enemy pouring in upon us on all ſides, and ſeveral valuable officers, and many of our beſt men killed and wounded; it was evident we could not hold out for ten minutes longer; and, therefore, we thought it more our duty to preſerve the lives of the brave men we commanded, than to ſacrifice them to what we conceived was a miſtaken point of honour. Had we acted differently, it is probable, that in leſs time than what I have juſt mentioned, their

their fate would have been decided by the bayonet.

Major-general Coote, by whoſe bed I am writing, has enjoined me to repeat the praiſes (and I am witneſs he has juſtly beſtowed them) on the officers and men which he had the honour to mention in his diſpatch of yeſterday. And we hope that, although we have not been finally ſucceſful in re-embarking, our conduct and exertions, in having effected the object of the enterpriſe, will be deemed honourable by his Majeſty and our country; and we rely upon his gracious acceptance of our endeavours and zeal in the attempt to extricate the troops entruſted to our charge from difficulties both unavoidable and inſurmountable. Major-general Coote and myſelf would willingly beſtow praiſe where it is due; but, among many competitors, it is difficult to ſelect, without appearing to overlook others well deſerving.

We have, ſir, the honour of mentioning to you Colonel Campbell of the third guards light infantry, and Major Donkin of the 44th, whoſe conduct if any thing could have protracted our fate, had been equal to the difficulty of effecting it. Captain Walker commanding the royal artillery, Captains Wilſon and Godfrey, and Lieutenants Sympſon, Hughes and Holcroft, all of the ſame diſtinguiſhed corps, after having done every thing that man could do, ſpiked their guns, and threw them over the banks at the moment the enemy were poſſeſſing themſelves of them. The latter gentleman, Lieutenant Holcroft, when all his men were wounded except one, remained at his gun, doing duty with it to the beſt of his ability. Captain Gibbs of the 11th, and Captain Halket of the 23d light infantry, eminently diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their cool intrepid conduct during the whole time of the action.

All the gentlemen of the ſtaff conducted themſelves much to the ſatisfaction of Major-general Coote, and myſelf.

To

To Captain Cumberland of the 83d,, and Cornet Nixon of the 7th light dragoons, who flatteringly offered to accompany me, and who acted as my aid-de-camp, I am much indebted; their attention and activity I found of moſt material ſervice.

Mr. Lowen, volunteer, attached to the 23d light infantry, was twice wounded, and was particularly conſpicuous, and remarked as a moſt promiſing ſoldier. We think it but juſtice to the enemy to ſay, that our wounded are treated with humanity; many of them are in the hoſpital of this town, and are well attended by their ſurgeons.

Our numbers on ſhore were about 1,000 men, of whom we are afraid there are from 100 to 150 killed and wounded. The enemy, by all accounts, have loſt about the ſame number.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HARRY BURRARD.

To the right honourable Henry Dundas.

Then follows a correct liſt of the killed and wounded, of which the following is the total.

One Lieutenant-colonel, one ſerjeant, thirty-one rank and file, and eleven ſeamen killed; one Colonel, one Major, two Captains, one Lieutenant, three ſergeants, fifty-nine rank and file, and three ſeamen wounded; two drummers, and forty-five rank and file miſſing.

Names and rank of officers killed and wounded.

Major-general Coote, dangerouſly wounded; Colonel Campbell, 3d guards, wounded—ſince dead; Colonel Hely, 11th regiment of foot, killed; Major Donkin, light infantry, wounded; Captain Walker, of the artillery, wounded—ſince dead; Captain Duff, 3d guards, wounded; Volunteer Lowen, 23d light infantry, badly wounded.

ROYAL

ROYAL NAVY.

Mr. Wiſdom, and Mr. Belding, maſter's mates, of his Majeſty's ſhip Circe, killed.

Then follows the return of officers, non-commiſſioned, and rank and file, under the command of Major-general Coote, ſurrendered priſoners of war, on the ſand hills, near Oſtend, May 20th, 1798.

It is needleſs to enumerate individually the Britiſh priſoners—ſufficient is it to ſay, that it was the whole of the army which landed near Oſtend, except thoſe who fell in battle, or died of their wounds.

Oſtend, May 27th, 1798.

Sir,

It is with inexpreſſible concern that I am to acquaint you, that Colonel Campbell, of the 3d regiment of guards, died this morning, of the wound he received in the action of the 20th inſtant. The unſpeakable loſs to the ſervice, by the death of this highly accompliſhed officer, is juſtly and deeply lamented.

Major-general Burrard, with all the officers (three or four who were left with me, excepted) and ſoldiers, are removed to Liſle, where I expect to be ſent as ſoon as I am ſufficiently recovered of my wounds.

I have the honour to be, &c,

EYRE COOTE, Major-general.

To the right honourable Henry Dundas, &c.

We have, however, a ſort of counterbalance to this national diſaſter, by the capture of the iſland of Minorca, by his Majeſty's forces; and what is a pleaſing circumſtance, this important conqueſt was effected without the loſs of a ſingle man.

Downing-ſtreet, December 23d, 1798.

Captain Gifford, firſt aid-de-camp to General the honourable Charles Stuart, arrived this afternoon at Mr. Dundas's

Dundas's office with a diſpatch from the General, of which the following is an extract.

Ciudadella, November 18th, 1798.

Sir,

I have honour to acquaint you, that his Majeſty's forces are in poſſeſſion of the iſland of Minorca, without having ſuſtained the loſs of a ſingle man.

As neither Commodore Duckworth nor myſelf could procure any uſeful information relative to the object of the expedition at Gibraltar, it was judged expedient to diſpatch the Peterell ſloop of war to cruize off the harbour of Mahon for intelligence; where, after remaining a few days, ſhe joined the fleet near the Colombrites, without having made any eſſential diſcovery. So circumſtanced, it was agreed to attempt a deſcent in the bay of Addaya; and the wind proving favourable on the 7th inſtant, a feint was made by the line of battle ſhips at Fornelles, and boats were aſſembled for that purpoſe, under the direction of Captains Bowen, Polden, and Preſsland. Previous to the landing of the troops, a ſmall battery at the entrance of the bay was evacuated, the magazine blown up, and the guns ſpiked; and ſhortly after the firſt diviſion, conſiſting of 800 men, was on ſhore. A conſiderable exploſion to the weſtward indicated that the Spaniards had alſo abandoned the works at Fornelles. Nearly at the ſame moment, 2,000 of the enemy's troops approached in ſeveral directions, and threatened to ſurround this inconſiderable force, but were repulſed with ſome loſs, on the left, while the guns of the Argo checked a ſimilar attempt on the right flank; and the poſt was maintained until the debarkation of the different diviſions afforded the means of eſtabliſhing a poſition, from whence the enemy's troops would have been attacked with conſiderable advantage, had they not retired in the beginning of the night.

The ſtrength of the ground, the paſſes and badneſs of the roads in Minorca, are ſcarcely to be equalled in the moſt mountainous parts of Europe; and what encreaſed the difficulty of advancing, upon this occaſion, was the dearth of intelligence; for, although near 100 deſerters had come in from the Swiſs regiments, and affirmed that the remaining force upon the iſland exceeded 4,000 men, no particular account of the enemy's movements was obtained. Under this uncertainty, it was for a few minutes doubtful what meaſure to purſue, but as quickly determined to proceed by a forced march to Mercandal, and thereby ſeparate the enemy's force, by poſſeſſing the eſſential paſs in the firſt inſtance, and from thence advancing upon his principal communications, to either extremity of the iſland, juſtly depending upon Commodore Duckworth's zeal and exertions to forward from Addaya and Fornelles ſuch ſupplies of proviſions and ordnance ſtores as might favour ſubſequent operations.

To effect this object, Colonel Graham was ſent with 600 men, and by great exertions arrived at Mercandal a very few hours after the main force of the enemy had marched towards Ciudadella, making ſeveral officers and ſoldiers priſoners, ſeizing various ſmall magazines, and eſtabliſhing his corps in the front of the village.

The perſevering labour of 250 ſeamen under the direction of Lieutenant Buchannan, during the night, having greatly aſſiſted the artillery in forwarding the battalion guns, the army arrived at Mercandal on the 9th, where, learning that Mahon was nearly evacuated, a diſpoſition was inſtantly made to operate with the whole force in that direction, and Colonel Paget was detached under this movement, with 300 men, to take poſſeſſion of the town; upon his arrival he ſummoned Fort Charles to ſurrender, and made the Lieutenant Governor of the iſland, a Colonel of artillery, and 160 men, priſoners of war; removed the boom obſtructing the entrance of the harbour, and gave free paſſage

paſſage to the Cormorant and Aurora frigates, which were previouſly ſent by Commodore Duckworth, to make a diverſion off that port. But theſe were not the only advantages reſulting from this movement; it favoured deſertion, intercepted all ſtragglers, and enabled the different departments of the army to procure beaſts of burden for the further progreſs of his Majeſty's arms.

Having aſcertained that the enemy's troops were throwing up works and entrenching themſelves in front of Ciudadella, it was reſolved to force this poſition on the night of the 13th inſtant; and preparatory to this attempt, Colonel Paget, with 200 men, was withdrawn from Mahon; Colonel Moncrief was ſent forward with the detachment to Ferarias, three light twelve-pounders, and five and a half inch howitzers, and ninety marines landed from the fleet; when, in conſequence of its having been communicated to Commodore Duckworth, that four ſhips, ſuppoſed to be of the line, were ſeen between Majorca and Minorca, ſteering towards the laſt mentioned iſland, he reſolved to purſue them, requeſted that the ſeamen and marines might re-embark, and ſignified his determination of proceeding with all the armed tranſports to ſea; but, weighing the ſerious conſequences which would reſult to the whole army, from the ſmalleſt delay on one hand, and the advantages to be reaſonably expected from a ſpirited attack on the other, it was thought adviſable to retain them with the army; and, on the 12th inſtant, the whole force marched to Alpinz, and from thence proceeded on the 13th to Jupet, Colonel Moncrief's detachment moving in a parallel line on the Ferarias road to Mala Garaba. Theſe precautions, and the appearing of two columns approaching the town, induced the enemy to retire from their half-conſtructed defences within the walls of Ciudadella; and on the evening of the ſame day, a ſmall detachment under Captain Muter was ſent to take poſſeſſion of the Torre deu Quart, whereby the army was enabled to advance on the 14th, apparently

apparently in three columns, upon Kane's, the Ferarias, and Fornelles roads to the inveſtment of the town at day-break, occupying ground covered by the poſition the enemy had relinquiſhed: thus ſtationed, in want of heavy artillery, and every article neceſſary for a ſiege, it was judged expedient to ſummon the governor of Minorca to ſurrender; and the preliminary articles were immediately conſidered; but doubts ariſing on the part of the enemy, whether the inveſting force was ſuperior to that of the garriſon, two batteries of three twelve-pounders, and three five and half inch howitzers were erected in the courſe of the following night within 800 yards of the place, and at day-break the main body of the troops formed in order of battle conſiderably to the right of Kane's road, leaving the picquets to communicate between them and Colonel Moncrief's poſt. This line, partly real and partly imaginary, extended four miles in front of the enemy's batteries: from whence two eighteen-pound ſhots were immediately fired on the troops; but a timely parley, and a diſtant appearance of the ſquadron, occaſioned the ceſſation of hoſtilities, and renewed a negociation, which, through the addreſs of Major-general Sir James St. Clair Erſkine, terminated in the annexed capitulation.

Four weeks ſalt proviſions for the garriſon, beſides the incloſed liſt of ordnance ſtores, were found in the town of Ciudadella. The aſſiſtance received from Commodore Duckworth, in forwarding the light artillery and proviſions, greatly facilitated the rapid movements of the army; and I am happy in the opportunity of declaring my obligations to Lord Mark Kerr, and captain Cawfield for the ſupplies they ſent from Mahon, and their exertions to land two mortars, which in the event of further reſiſtance, might have proved of the utmoſt importance in ſecuring the army, or compelling the enemy to ſurrender.

The ſupport I have experienced from Major-General Sir James St. Clair Erſkine, Brigadiers-general Stuart and

and Oakes, the exertion of Lieutenant-colonel Stewart my Adjutant-general, the zeal, ſpirit, and preſeverance of both the officers and men of the different regiments under my command, have eminently contributed to the ſucceſs of the expedition, and authorize me to repreſent their ſervices as highly deſerving his Majeſty's moſt gracious approbation.

Captain Gifford, my firſt aid-de-camp, who is perfectly acquainted with every circumſtance, concerning the capitulation of Ciudadella, and the reduction of the iſland of Minorca, will have the honour to deliver this diſpatch.

I have the honour to be, &c.

CHARLES STUART.

To the right honourable Henry Dundas.

TERMS OF CAPITULATION,

Demanded for the ſurrender of the fortreſs of Ciudadella, to the arms of his Britannic Majeſty.

Article I. The garriſon ſhall not be conſidered as priſoners of war, but ſhall march out free, with their arms, drums beating, colours flying, with twelve rounds of cartridge per man.—Anſwer. The town and fortreſs of Ciudadella, and the fort of St. Nicholas, together with all the artillery, ammunition, ſtores, proviſions, or effects, the property of his moſt Catholic Majeſty, ſhall be ſurrendered to the Britiſh army to-morrow at noon.

II. They ſhall be preceded by four braſs four-pounders, and two two-inch howitzers, with lighted matches, and twelve rounds for each.—Anſwer. The garriſon ſhall march out as propoſed in the firſt article, but the guns muſt be left with the artillery.

III. The ſaid garriſon ſhall be ſent with all due convenience to Spain, at the expence of his Britannic Majeſty, to one of the neareſt ports of the Peninſula.—Anſwer. The garriſon ſhall be conveyed to the neareſt port of his Catholic Majeſty.

IV.

IV. The officers in this iſland and fortreſs ſhall keep their arms, horſes and equipage, with the funds of their regiments, and ſhall be permitted to go to Mahon, to bring away their families, and removing or diſpoſing of their property there.—Anſwer. Admitted, they paying their juſt debts, &c.

V. Deſerters from this army ſhall be given up.—Anſwer. Refuſed.

VI. The inhabitants of this iſland ſhall be allowed the free exerciſe of their religion.—Anſwer. Admitted.

Some other terms of leſſer conſequence are mentioned, and, in general, were all granted.

(Signed) CHARLES STUART,
General and commander in chief.
J. T. DUCKWORTH,
Commodore and naval commander in chief.

Juan Nupomuceno de Queſada

To theſe articles of capitulation, is added a liſt of the cannon, ammunition, ſtores &c. &c. found in the iſland of Minorca.

The following is an account of the general ſtate of the Spaniſh troops to be embarked for the evacuation of the iſland of Minorca. One hundred and fifty-three officers, 3,528 ſerjeants, drummers, and rank and file. fifty-ſix horſes. General ſtaff ſixteen, including one governor, one Lieutenant governor, one Major-general, &c. &c. &c.

A continent which depends upon its population and improvement in agriculture only, materially feels the calamities of war, in proportion as theſe are injured; it is otherwiſe with a country whoſe ſtrength and conſequence are derived from its commerce. Preſerve only its trade, give employment to its manufacturers, encourage commercial intercourſe with foreigners, and let all its energies be guarded by a ſuperiority in its naval ſtrength; then ſhould it even be involved in war, it will feel its deſtructive conſequences the leſs.

This

This remark holds true reſpecting our own "ſea-girt iſle." For, amidſt the various calamities in which the late deſperate and diſaſtrous conteſt had involved the European world, it was happy for this country that our loſſes and misfortunes have been chiefly of a pecuniary nature. While immenſe tracts of territory were laid waſte, while provinces were deſolated, and the path of the deſtroyer marked only by ſlaughter and blood, our inſular ſituation fortunately protected us from witneſſing theſe diſtreſsful ſcenes: the part which we had taken in the conteſt has been chiefly in that which has been emphatically termed, our own element; and there we have been almoſt uniformly ſucceſsful. From this circumſtance, even the pecuniary embarraſſments which the war has created, have been leſs felt than might have been apprehended. Our naval ſuperiority had given us a monopoly of almoſt the whole commerce of the univerſe; and, while our expenditure was encreaſing in an enormous and alarming degree, our means almoſt bore a proportionate augmentation. To this may be added, our internal tranquillity and union of ſentiment which, in general, prevailed in the kingdom.

During the revolution of the laſt year, 1798, we recorded many events of a novel and ſtriking kind; and when we witneſſed a rebellion in a neighbouring kingdom, kindled partially by oppreſſion and miſtaken policy, but chiefly by the fatal effects of ſuperſtition and the baleful influence of a religion, hoſtile to the peace and liberty of man. This civil war, in which 30,000 lives were loſt, was at length, under the mild adminiſtration of the Marquis Cornwallis, happily terminated. We ſaw another event, much more bold and daring take place; and that was the French expedition to Egypt.—By the valour and intrepidity of young Admiral Nelſon, his brave and experienced Captains, along with the daring and matchleſs Britiſh ſeamen, this fleet, ſo formidable, ſo well appointed, and ſo numerouſly

merously manned, was utterly defeated, by a deſtruction ſcarcely equalled in naval hiſtory.

We now are entering upon the hiſtory of events that happened in the ſubſequent year, 1799, equally great and influential on the affairs of, not only Europe, but of the moſt diſtant regions of the globe.

We have thus ſlightly noticed that every cauſe contributed to produce that unanimity of ſentiment, that general ſpread of loyalty, which marked the period of which we are now to treat, the latter end of the year 1798, and the beginning of 1799.

On the opening of the parliamentary ſeſſion, on the 20th of November, the ſpeech from the throne was, for the moſt part, a recapitulation of the events which had occurred during the receſs.

According to our reſolution of only giving the outlines of parliamentary debates, we ſhall on this occaſion purſue the ſame mode.

A motion was made by Mr. Tierney, relative to peace, and it was in ſubſtance, "that the miniſters ſhould adviſe his Majeſty againſt entering into any engagements which could impede a negociation for peace, whenever a diſpoſition appeared in the French republic to treat on terms conſiſtent with the intereſts of Great Britain."

He acknowledged that the motion might not be ſtrictly parliamentary—but it might be objected, beſides, that this motion tended to damp the riſing ſpirit of Europe. If that ſpirit was likely to animate all Europe againſt the common enemy, he ſhould be the laſt man in the country to damp it, or to wiſh it diſcouraged; but there was no ſpirit ariſing from a good principle in any quarter.—What had been the conduct of the powers on the continent? Had a ſyſtematic courſe of oppoſition to the ambitious projects of France ever been purſued by any of them? Pruſſia had been at peace for three years. The Emperor of Germany alſo had no diſpute with the French at preſent.—A general ſpirit to reſiſt the French was no where to be ſeen.

To

To all this, it had been anſwered, that thoſe nations now underſtood their own intereſt better than before. What proof was there of it? The combined powers predicted all the evils which had happened in conſequence of the anarchy of France—they had ſtrained every nerve to counteract them—they now needed no freſh combuſtibles to inflame them more violently than the republic had already done. What could inſpire monarchy with greater hatred againſt French principles than their conduct towards their own mild monarch? Could the nobility of any country reſent any thing more than the abolition of their order, and the deſtruction of their titles? What could inſpire the church with more zeal than the overthrow of all church eſtabliſhments? Theſe were the men who once united againſt France; and it was from theſe that the deliverance of Europe was again expected!——After Lord Duncan's glorious victory, Mr. Tierney obſerved, his Majeſty nobly declared, and renewed before all Europe, the moſt ſolemn aſſurance, that in ſpite of repeated provocations, and at the very moment when Providence had bleſſed his arms with ſignal ſucceſs, he was ready to conclude a peace on the ſame terms which he had before propoſed. The rejection of ſuch an offer, demonſtrated the implacable animoſity and inſatiable ambition of the enemy, to whom alone muſt be attributed the conſequences of this direful war.

Mr. Tierney obſerved, that this truly noble declaration did much honour to his Majeſty, and to his councils; but, alas! we now are told that the laſt ſplendid achievement had changed, and ſet aſide all thoſe magnanimous and prudent ſentiments; and nothing but war was the object now to be purſued.

Mr. Tierney ſaid, the laſt objection which he ſhould anticipate was, that this motion might intimate to France, that we could not any further co-operate with our allies. But we did co-operate by our naval exertions; had co-operated effectually by our naval victories; and it was his ardent deſire, that we ſhould

continue to co-operate by the force of our fleet; but not by ſending troops or ſubſidies to the continent. In the name of the comfort, the quiet, and the ſafety of the country, he proteſted againſt it! We were carrying on a war, the expence of which was thirty millions a year, which was two millions and a half every month. We were carrying on a war, by which we had added, in ſix years, one hundred and fifty millions ſterling to our debt, by which we had created the neceſſity of adding eight millions to our annual burthens; a ſum equal to the whole of our expenditure when his preſent Majeſty came to the throne.——The late law had ſilenced every man in the country (excepting in that houſe) by the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act; and, when all theſe circumſtances were added together, was it probable, that the conſtitution of England, or the purſes of the people, could ſupport this ſyſtem of deſtruction much longer?

Mr. Tierney concluded with wiſhing, that the energy of this country might be directed to the intereſt of Great Britain, and not to be waſted in viſionary projects of ideal conqueſts. To himſelf it would always be a ſource of conſolation to reflect, that he had lifted up his voice, unſupported and feeble as it was, in the cauſe of patriotiſm and truth.

Mr. Canning roſe, and in a ſpeech of great length, in which he ſeemed to be actuated with uncommon animation, anſwered Mr. Tierney's objections to the meaſures of government. He replied with great irony to the honourable gentleman reſpecting our foreign alliances, and, among other remarks, he ſaid, Mr. Tierney ſeemed to object againſt an alliance with the Ottoman Porte—but this Turk was a mahometan, and therefore an ally unfit for a chriſtian.—For his own part he thought an alliance with a mahometan might be as good as a peace with an atheiſt; the ſanction of its engagements be as ſacred, and its ſtipulations as likely to be fulfilled. Yet this was not all; the Turk was ſlow to anger, hard to be driven into action. If

ſuch

ſuch were his character, what muſt have been his provocations that had rouſed him!—But the Turks and Ruſſians were natural enemies;—what did that prove but that the aggreſſions of France had been ſo multiplied, ſo various, and ſo extraordinary, as to unite againſt her thoſe powers the moſt oppoſite in nature and intereſt, &c. &c.

The diſcuſſion of the bill for the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act, ſhortly ſucceeded this debate upon Mr. Tierney's motion, and Mr. Pitt, on introducing the bill, ſaid, that although the rebellion in Ireland had been cruſhed, yet the ſame ſpirit of diſaffection ſtill reigned in many parts of both kingdoms; and as the grounds on which the ſuſpenſion had been laſt voted, were freſh in the recollection of the houſe; and as none of them had been removed or altered, he judged it unneceſſary to aſſign any new reaſon for the meaſure.

Mr. Courtenay reprobated the ſuſpenſion of the act, and the worſe than inquiſitorial rigour with which the pretended ſtate priſoners were treated.

He ſaid, that, deſirous of obtaining ſome information upon this ſubject, he viſited theſe priſons, and found that the worſt of criminals had never been ſo treated in this country as in the preſent inſtance. The priſoners were locked up in cells, without fire, without candle! They had only a truckle bed; and the only means allowed to afford a glimmering of light, alſo let the rain pour down—they were excluded from all ſociety, and to prevent their dying outright, they were permitted to enjoy the freſh air, in the yard, for a ſingle hour in the day.

He next viſited the cells where other perſons were confined by this act—they were frightful to behold! all the places were damp, dark, and diſmal! He appealed to the houſe whether ſuch rigour ought ever to be employed or exerciſed upon Britiſh ſubjects. He had enquired of lawyers whether they had ever heard of it, and they ſaid no not even in the caſe of any felon;

yet

yet ſo theſe men were treated in this priſon, which (for what reaſon he knew not) had been called the *Baſtile.*

The direction of this diſmal place was under the chief management of a clergyman of the church of England, a miniſter of the goſpel of Chriſt! a loyal ſubject, and a good friend to government, for he had pronounced a high panegyric on the ſedition bills!—Perhaps, ſaid Mr. Courtenay, the rigour of this divine aroſe from his *principles of piety* and of *benevolence* to the priſoners; probably thinking, that the more they were puniſhed in this world, the better chance they had in the next.

The attorney general, Mr. Dundas, and others of the miniſter's friends, defended the proceedings againſt the priſoners, and maintained, that they had not been harſhly uſed, &c.

After conſiderable diſcuſſion, the bill was agreed to continue in force till the 21ſt of May, 1799.

In the houſe of Lords, on the ſame day as in the houſe of Commons, Lord Grenville moved for the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act.

Almoſt the ſame arguments were uſed both for and againſt the bill, in the houſe of Lords as in the houſe of Commons; with which we ſhall not trouble our readers, and ſhall only obſerve, that the ſuſpenſion was continued to the ſame time as in the houſe of Commons.

Some ſoft-hearted people rather wondered that a certain deſcription of Peers, readily voted for immuring many reſpectable perſons in theſe frightful abodes.—Alas; theſe weak people who poſſibly are taken off by appearance, do not conſider, that wearing ſleeves of lawn neither improves the feelings, nor ſoftens the heart of thoſe who wear them! It can well be remembered, that in the high debate, reſpecting the neceſſity of proceeding with hoſtile meaſures againſt the revolted Americans—his Grace of Richmond, obſerving, that the whole bench of biſhops (one excepted) voted for

for the war, ſaid, with a frown, "that he ſhould not wonder, one day, to ſee their lawn ſleeves crimſoned over with blood!"—And yet his Grace voted for the preſent ſevere bill, for ſuſpending the great palladium of Britiſh liberty, along with his friends, the biſhops! So apt are men to ſee the ſame evil, or worſe, in quite different lights, as *motives of a particular nature* influence them.

But a matter of vaſt importance was now to draw the attention, not only of Britain, but of all Europe, viz. a plan of an union between Great Britain and Ireland. This was a ſubject of the higheſt magnitude and importance to both countries.

The ſubject of an union with Ireland was introduced, with ſome addreſs, into the Britiſh houſe of Commons, on the 22d of January, 1799, under the form of a meſſage from his Majeſty, to the following effect:

"George R.

"His Majeſty is perſuaded that the unremitting induſtry with which our enemies perſevere in their avowed deſign, of effecting the ſeparation of Ireland from this kingdom, cannot fail to engage the particular attention of parliament; and his Majeſty recommends to this houſe, to conſider of the moſt effectual means of finally defeating this deſign, by diſpoſing the parliaments of both kingdoms to provide in the manner they ſhall judge moſt expedient, for ſettling ſuch a complete and final adjuſtment, as may beſt tend to improve and perpetuate a connection eſſential for their common ſecurity, and conſolidate the ſtrength, power, and reſources of the Britiſh empire."

On Thurſday, January 31ſt, the order of the day being read, for taking his Majeſty's meſſage into conſideration,

Mr. Chancellor Pitt roſe, and ſaid, when he propoſed the ſubject to the houſe the laſt time, in order to fix that day for the farther conſideration of his Majeſty's meſſage,

meſſage, he indulged a hope, that the reſult of a ſimilar communication to the parliament of Ireland, would have opened a more favourable proſpect than at preſent exiſted, of the ſpeedy accompliſhment of a meaſure which he then propoſed: however, he ſaid, he had been diſappointed by the proceedings of the Iriſh houſe of Commons, he was convinced that the parliament of Ireland poſſeſſed the power, the entire competence to accept or reject a propoſition of this nature—a power which he by no means meant to diſpute: but while he admitted the rights of the parliament of Ireland, he felt that, as a member of parliament of Great Britain, he had a right to exerciſe, and a duty to perform, viz. to expreſs the general nature and outline of the plan, which, in his eſtimation, would tend to inſure the ſafety and the happineſs of the two kingdoms. Should parliament be of opinion that it was calculated to produce mutual advantage to the two kingdoms, he ſhould propoſe it to be recorded, that the parliament of Great Britain was ready to abide by it, leaving it to the legiſlature of Ireland to reject or adopt it hereafter, upon a full conſideration of the ſubject. Notwithſtanding the opinion expreſſed by the Iriſh houſe of Commons, he was convinced that the meaſure was founded upon ſuch clear and demonſtrable grounds of utility, and attended with ſo many advantages to Ireland, that all that could be ſaid for its ultimate adoption was, that it ſhould be ſtated diſtinctly, temperately, and fully, and then left to the unprejudiced judgment of the parliament of Ireland. He ſhould, therefore, before he ſat down, open to the houſe a ſeries of reſolutions, compriſing the general heads of the plan, and move that the houſe reſolve itſelf into a committee to diſcuſs thoſe reſolution.

The general principle on which both ſides of the houſe acceded was, that a perpetual connection between Great Britain and Ireland was eſſential to the intereſt of both countries. Ireland had been attacked, he ſaid, by foreign enemies, and by domeſtic traitors, whoſe great object it was to diſſolve the connection.

When

When he addreſſed the houſe laſt upon the ſubject, he ſtated that the ſettlement which was made in 1782, ſo far from deſerving the name of a final adjuſtment, was one that left the connection between Great Britain and Ireland expoſed to all the attacks of party, and all the effects of accident. That ſettlement, he contended, conſiſted in the demolition of the ſyſtem which had before held the two countries together. Such was the final adjuſtment, which he could prove not only from the plaineſt reaſoning, but by the opinion expreſſed by the Britiſh parliament, at that very time. On a former night, he ſaid, he ſhowed, from the journals, what was the opinion of thoſe by whom the final adjuſtment was propoſed, when it appeared that the meſſage was ſent to the parliament of Ireland, recommending to them the adoption of ſome plan for the final adjuſtment between the two countries, and wiſhing to know the grounds of the grievances of which they complained. In anſwer to this meſſage, the parliament of Ireland ſtated certain grievances, the principal of which was, the power claimed by the parliament of Great Britain of making laws to bind Ireland; but with reſpect to that part of the meſſage relative to the propriety of adopting ſome meaſures for a final adjuſtment between the two countries, they were wholly ſilent. Their grievances were redreſſed by parliament, by the repeal of what was called the declaratory act.

Mr. Pitt proceeded to make ſome remarks on the obvious impediments to the proſperity of Ireland: one of the moſt prominent features was a want of induſtry, and a capital, which, he ſaid, were only to be ſupplied by blending more cloſely with Ireland the induſtry and capital of this country. He alſo made ſome obſervations on the religious diſtinctions, which, he ſaid, he was aware was a dangerous and delicate topic, eſpecially when applied to Ireland. However, no man could ſay in the preſent ſtate of things, and while Ireland remained a ſeparate kingdom, that full conceſſions could be made to the catholics, without endangering the

and vote in the ſaid parliament of the united kingdom ſhall, until the ſaid parliament ſhall otherwiſe provide, take and ſubſcribe the ſame oaths, and make the ſame declarations, as are by law required to be taken, ſubſcribed, and made, by the members of the parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland.

5th, That for the ſame purpoſe it appears alſo to this committee, that it would be fit to propoſe that the churches of England and Ireland, and the doctrine, worſhip, diſcipline, and government thereof, ſhall be preſerved as now by law eſtabliſhed.

6th, That for the ſame purpoſe it appears alſo to this committee, that it would be fit to propoſe that his Majeſty's ſubjects in Ireland ſhall at all times hereafter be entitled to the ſame privileges, and be on the ſame footing in reſpect of trade and navigation, in all ports and places belonging to Great Britain, and in all caſes with reſpect to which treaties ſhall be made by his Majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, with any foreign power, as his majeſty's ſubjects in Great Britain; that no duty ſhall be impoſed on the import or export between Great Britain and Ireland of any articles now duty free; and that on other articles there ſhall be eſtabliſhed, for a time to be limited, ſuch a moderate rate of equal duties as ſhall, previous to the union, be agreed upon and approved by the reſpective parliaments, ſubject, after the expiration of ſuch limited time, to be diminiſhed equally with reſpect to both kingdoms, but in no caſe to be encreaſed; that all articles which may at any time hereafter be imported into Great Britain from foreign parts, ſhall be importable through either kingdom into the other, ſubject to the like duties and regulations as if the ſame were imported directly from foreign parts; that where any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture, of either kingdom, are ſubject to any internal duty in one kingdom, ſuch countervailing duties (over and above any duties on import to be fixed as aforeſaid) ſhall be impoſed as ſhall be neceſſary to prevent any inequality in that reſpect: and that all

other

other matters of trade and commerce other than the foregoing, and that ſuch others as may before the union be ſpecially agreed upon for the due encouragement of the agriculture and manufactures of the reſpective kingdoms, ſhall remain to be regulated from time to time by the united parliament.

7th, That for the like purpoſe it would be fit to propoſe, that the charge ariſing from the payment of the intereſt or ſinking fund for the reduction of the principal of the debt incurred in either kingdom before the union, ſhall continue to be ſeparately defrayed by Great Britain and Ireland reſpectively. That, for a number of years to be limited, the future ordinary expences of the united kingdom in peace or war ſhall be defrayed by Great Britain and Ireland jointly, according to ſuch proportions as ſhall be eſtabliſhed by the reſpective parliaments previous to the union; and that, after the expiration of the time to be ſo limited, the proportion ſhall not be liable to be varied, except according to ſuch rates and principles as ſhall be in like manner agreed upon previous to the union.

8th, That for the like purpoſe it would be fit to propoſe, that all laws in force at the time of the union, and that all the courts of civil or eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction within the reſpective kingdoms, ſhall remain as now by law eſtabliſhed within the ſame, ſubject only to ſuch alterations or regulations from time to time as circumſtances may appear to the parliament of the united kingdom to require.

That the foregoing reſolutions be laid before his Majeſty, with an humble addreſs, aſſuring his Majeſty that we have proceeded with the utmoſt attention to the conſideration of the important objects recommended to us in his Majeſty's gracious meſſage.

That we entertain a firm perſuaſion that a complete and entire union between Great Britain and Ireland, founded on equal and liberal principles, on the ſimilarity of laws, conſtitution, and government, and on a ſenſe of mutual intereſts and affections, by promoting the

the ſecurity, wealth, and commerce, of the reſpective kingdoms, and by allaying the diſtractions which have unhappily prevailed in Ireland, muſt afford freſh means of oppoſing at all times an effectual reſiſtance to the deſtructive projects of our foreign and domeſtic enemies, and muſt tend to confirm and augment the ſtability, power, and reſources of the empire.

Impreſſed with theſe conſiderations, we feel it our duty humbly to lay before his Majeſty, ſuch propoſitions as appear to us beſt calculated to form the baſis of ſuch a ſettlement, leaving it to his Majeſty's wiſdom, at ſuch a time and in ſuch a manner as his Majeſty, in his parental ſolicitude for the happineſs of his people, ſhall judge fit, to communicate theſe propoſitions to his parliament of Ireland, with whom we ſhall be at all times ready to concur, in all ſuch meaſures as may be found moſt conducive to the accompliſhment of this great and ſalutary work.—And we truſt, that after full and mature deliberation, ſuch a ſettlement may be framed and eſtabliſhed, by the deliberative conſent of the parliaments of both kingdoms, as may be conformable to the ſentiments, wiſhes, and real intereſts of his Majeſty's faithful ſubjects in Great Britain and Ireland, and may unite them inſeparably in the full enjoyment of the bleſſings of our free and invaluable conſtitution, in ſupport of the honour and dignity of his Majeſty's crown, and in the preſervation and advancement of the welfare and proſperity of the whole Britiſh empire.

Mr. Sheridan roſe, and, in a bold and very animated ſpeech, replied to the chancellor of the exchequer. Though the right honourable gentleman had introduced, he ſaid, the queſtion with a great diſplay of eloquence, he muſt yet critically purſue him in all the mazes of his dextrous declamation. He obſerved, that he had taken an opportunity, laſt week, of oppoſing the meaſure of legiſlative union with Ireland, in the firſt ſtage of the diſcuſſion, which, as a matter of courſe, was to lead to that queſtion. He did it from a conviction

tion, that meaſures of ſuch magnitude, and of ſuch novelty, ſhould always be oppoſed in the infancy of their progreſs. However, after conſidering the ſubject more fully, he was convinced, under the preſent circumſtances, of the convulſed and diſordered ſyſtem of policy and general government of Ireland, that it was not only impolitic, but even unſafe to agitate the diſcuſſion of topics, the iſſues of which were to lay the moſt hardy and ſtout-hearted proſtrate at the feet of a Britiſh miniſter. Conſidering the manner in which the ſubject was brought forward in Ireland, and the fate of the queſtion in the parliament of that kingdom, it might be doubted whether the right honourable gentleman would perſevere in the meaſure, He had, however, ſolemnly pledged himſelf, that it ſhould be the favourite object of the remainder of his political life to effect a legiſlative union of the two kingdoms. But, thank God! ſaid Mr. Sheridan, the houſe had not given a pledge to ſupport him. The right honourable gentleman had ſown already the moſt frightful diſſenſions in that unfortunate country. He had divided its parliament againſt itſelf. He had held it up to ſcorn, by libelling its meaſures, and traducing its wiſdom; and, after all, he had to array the Britiſh parliament againſt it, with a pertinency which diſtinguiſhed ignorance, and with the fierceneſs of men who were to be told, that a country ſtruggling for its liberties, only waged the war of faction, and wielded the weapons of diſaffection and treaſon. The right honourable gentleman had contended, that the commercial advantages derived by Ireland from her connection with Great Britain were neceſſary to her exiſtence; and he added, in the ſame breath, that, to have thoſe advantages continued to her, an union was indiſpenſible.

The inference, Mr. Sheridan ſaid, was, that Ireland muſt abandon all her commercial advantages if ſhe rejected the proffered alliance. From this, he contended that the people of Ireland could not come with unbiaſſed minds to this diſcuſſion, and it would be impoſſible that

that a free choice could be left to the parliament of that country. He alſo contended, that Ireland ought to conſent to a union, becauſe ſhe was incapable of defending herſelf againſt her internal and external enemies, without her powerful neighbour. Mr. Sheridan inſiſted that the inference was irreſiſtible. Was it generous, he ſaid, to hold out ſuch language to Ireland? Would it be proper to force the people of Ireland to aſk why they have not had theſe advantages yielded to them, on which, according to the opinion of the Britiſh miniſter, their proſperity depends? With reſpect to what the honourable gentleman had ſaid relative to Ireland not being able to defend herſelf, it was well known that her volunteers had defended Ireland during the war; but he contended, that it was a moſt cruel taunt, uttered in the face of the whole people of Ireland to ſay, that while we have 40,000 Britiſh troops in the heart of their country, we will awe them by ſuch a force, and reproach them with weakneſs, notwithſtanding we have had 200,000 of their beſt inhabitants to ſupport us in the preſent war; whilſt 100,000 fighting men of their nation have fallen in our battles in the Weſt Indies and elſewhere. What was it but to ſay, you have aſſiſted us, but now you are naked, ignorant, and uncivilized, if you do not accept from us the benefits we offer, we will proceed to confer them upon you by force. He next took notice of an argument which the right honourable gentleman had made uſe of in favour of an union, viz. the proſperity which Scotland had enjoyed ſince it had been united with England. But, ſaid Mr. Sheridan, might not Scotland have obtained the increaſe of wealth and proſperity merely by the dint of her own induſtry? Beſides, Scotland could not well be compared with Ireland. In Scotland the gentlemen of property were fond to reſide and encourage trade, &c. but in Ireland quite the reverſe. It was alſo urged, that two independent legiſlatures would ſeldom agree; and from this want of concurrence, the moſt ſerious calamities might ariſe. It might

might as well be argued, that two independent houſes of parliament may not co-operate, becauſe the Lords, for example, may throw out a money-bill ſent from the Commons, or that the Commons may refuſe to concur in the amendments made by the Lords. The whole of theſe objections, he ſaid, were refuted by experience. Mr. Sheridan ſaid, he ſhould move two reſolutions, which, in caſe the propoſitions ſhould be carried, he would wiſh to be placed before them, for the purpoſe of taking off, in ſome degree, that jealouſy which the Iriſh parliament would be apt to entertain of their paſſing the houſe, after the meaſure of the union had been ſo decidedly rejected in the houſe of Commons in Ireland. Mr. Sheridan then read the following reſolutions :—

"That no meaſures could have a tendency to improve and perpetuate the ties of amity between Great Britain and Ireland, which have not for their baſis the fair and free approbation of the parliaments of the two countries.

"That whoſoever ſhall endeavour to obtain ſuch approbation, in either country, by employing the influence of government for the purpoſes of corruption or intimidation, was an enemy to his Majeſty, and the conſtitution."

Lord Hawkeſbury roſe, and among other obſervations on Mr. Sheridan's reſolutions ſaid, that the honourable gentleman had inſinuated that the people of Ireland were againſt the meaſure of a union: this he begged leave to deny. The people of Cork, and thoſe of Limerick, had expreſſed themſelves in favour of it; and he had no doubt, if it once came to be duly conſidered, but the great majority of the whole nation would view it in the ſame favourable light.

He concluded a ſpeech of conſiderable length, with obſerving, that it was his deſire to extend the bleſſings of the Britiſh conſtitution, to all the ſubjects of the Britiſh empire.

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The houſe then divided on the queſtion of the ſpeaker's leaving the chair, Ayes 140—Noes 15.

Mr. Sheridan's reſolutions having been read in the committee, the houſe was reſumed, and the committee aſked leave to ſit on Thurſday.

Thurſday, February 7th, Mr. Chancellor Pitt moved the order of the day, for the houſe to reſolve into a committee, to take into farther conſideration his Majeſty's moſt gracious meſſage, reſpecting the propoſed union with Ireland.

Mr. Pitt's ſpeech on this occaſion referred chiefly to Mr. Sheridan's reſolutions, but ſaid nothing new on the ſubject of the union.

Mr. Grey roſe, and ſaid, the houſe was called upon, under circumſtances the moſt extraordinary, to agitate a queſtion the moſt momentous that ever came before any parliament, either in point of conſtitutional right, or public policy. It was called upon to diſcuſs a bargain, on the merits of which one of the parties, whoſe conſent was abſolutely neceſſary to give it effect, had declared they would not liſten to the very preliminary of the propoſal. A union, he ſaid, was what he heartily wiſhed for; but he meant ſomething more than a mere word. He meant not of parliaments but of hearts, affections, and intereſts; an union of vigour, of ardour, and of zeal for the general welfare of the Britiſh empire. It was that ſpecies of union, and that only, that could tend to encreaſe the ſtrength of the empire, and give it ſecurity againſt any danger. But, ſaid he, if any meaſure with the name of union only be propoſed, and the tendency of which would diſunite, and create diſaffection, diſtruſt, and jealouſy, it would tend to unhinge the whole Britiſh empire. Of this nature he took the preſent meaſure to be. Great evils, he admitted, exiſted in Ireland; but did they owe their origin to the legiſlature of Ireland? That Ireland had an independent legiſlature, was true; and that with that legiſlature, great calamities had happened to that country, was alſo true; but he did not think becauſe

cauſe theſe two things were co-exiſtent, that therefore the one of them muſt be conſidered as the cauſe, the other the effect. Although the conduct of the Iriſh parliament was anſwerable in many reſpects, we ought to look to other cauſes than that of the independence of their legiſlature, becauſe a great deal of it had been owing to the conduct of government, for which, he ſaid, the right honourable gentleman was reſponſible. "Look," ſaid Mr. Grey, "at the hiſtory of Ireland, and you will find, that if it had not been for the interference of Britiſh councils, and of Britiſh intrigue, none, or but few of the evils which were felt, would ever have taken place—evils of which government was the parent, and which were now made the reaſon for taking away all the ſemblance of liberty among the Iriſh people. All the feuds and religious animoſities and diſſenſions, which had diſtracted Ireland, had been cauſed by government; and yet government was making uſe of theſe evils as a pretext for taking away the liberty of the people of Ireland, &c."

Mr. Secretary Dundas, ſaid, he was ready to meet the opponents of the meaſure in any way they pleaſed, as he was armed with ſuch authorities as would overturn every objection that could be offered. He would, he ſaid, aſſume as a propoſition, which he believed no man would have the boldneſs to deny, that there exiſted in Ireland a ſpirit of clamour and diſſention, of treachery and treaſon, which menaced the overthrow of the preſent government. Now the queſtion was, whether or not the political diſeaſe was not likely to be removed by incorporating the two parliaments? He did not mean any thing diſreſpectful to the parliament or people of Ireland when he affirmed, that the evil machinations of the enemies in both countries have been too ſucceſsful in moſt inſtances, and that the check or controul of the Engliſh government was abſolutely neceſſary for the ſalvation of Ireland. He ſaid, it was impoſſible to imagine a remedy more appropriate to the radical cauſe of the diſeaſe, than the meaſure of an in-

corporate union of the legiſlatures of the two kingdoms. The proteſtants would of courſe lay aſide their jealouſies and diſtruſt, being certain that againſt any attempt to endanger the proteſtant eſtabliſhment in Ireland, the whole ſtrength of the united parliament would be exerted; and, on the other hand, every catholic, who was a friend to the connection with Great Britain, deſirous of attaining every indulgence, and of being admitted into a participation of every privilege conſiſtent with that connection, would be confident that their cauſe would be candidly and impartially conſidered by an united parliament.—Mr. Dundas next entered into a comparative view of the benefits which Scotland derived by the union with England. At the time of the union, the linen trade in Scotland amounted to about 1,000,000 of yards; but by the foſtering care of the united parliament, and from a benign conſolidation of the intereſts of both kingdoms, it had encreaſed to the quantity of 23,000,000, manufactured in the year 1796. He obſerved, that theſe improvements, and this encreaſe of trade, were not confined to any particular part of Scotland, but were experienced in every corner of it. Many melancholy pictures, he ſaid, in the ſhape of prophecies, were preſented to the public view on that melancholy occaſion. Among other falſe prophecies, he mentioned the celebrated ſpeech of Lord Belhaven. He then made ſome obſervations on a letter from Queen Anne to the Scottiſh parliament, recommending to them to take the articles which had been agreed upon at London under their conſideration; and ſhewed from this letter, that her Majeſty was a true propheteſs, as not one ſyllable of her predictions had failed with reſpect to the advantages which Scotland derived from an union with England. Mr. Dundas ſaid, it had been aſked what right we had to impute all thoſe advantages to the union of the two kingdoms, as Scotland might be expected, like other nations, to have advanced in proſperity from the various cauſes which had contributed to the modern wealth of other ſtates?

ſtates? Many anſwers might be given to the queſtion, founded on the local ſituation of Scotland, her internal policy, and her relation to other nations, which muſt have for ever debarred that kingdom, in a ſeparate ſtate, from participating that proſperity which had marked the progreſs of other ſtates in Europe. He then quoted part of the ſpeech of Mr. Seton, of Pitmeddon, as a complete anſwer to the above queſtion. This gentleman was one of the commiſſioners for treating with England for an union, and, upon the firſt article being brought under conſideration of the Scotch parliament, delivered his ſentiments upon it.—It had been inſiſted upon by ſome gentlemen that we ought to proceed no farther in the buſineſs, after the houſe of Commons of Ireland had expreſſed its repugnance to the meaſure. No deciſion, however, of that houſe ſhould deter him from telling and explaining to the people and parliament what were the propoſals which miniſters were deſirous to ſubmit to their cool and diſpaſſionate conſideration. The Iriſh houſe of Commons had expreſſed what they thought of an union; and it was our buſineſs to tell what we think of it alſo.

Mr. Sheridan replied to ſome of the arguments uſed by Mr. Dundas in favour of the union; as did alſo Mr. Tierney.

On Monday, February 11th, the ſubject of the union was again brought forward in the houſe of Commons, when Mr. Pitt's reſolutions were all agreed to, with ſome amendments.

The finances for the year 1799 was the next ſubject which engaged the attention of the houſe, when Mr. Pitt propoſed, as a new ſource of ſupply, the famous income tax.—He eſtimated the value of the objects of this plan of finance at 102,000,000l. Upon this ſum, he ſaid, a tax of ten per cent. was likely to produce 10,000,000l. a year.—After ſeveral obſervations made by different members on this new plan of finance, the reſolutions were read, agreed to, a bill ordered, and the meaſure finally paſſed into a law.

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We ſhall now turn the attention of our readers from our domeſtic, to the tranſactions abroad, which more immediately reſpect the war.

By taking a retroſpective of the plans of the French, we ſhall juſt obſerve, that whilſt their government was conſolidating its power within, and forming around its territory a barrier of repreſentative republics, repoſing with complacent ſecurity on the advantages it had gained, and on the perpetuity of the power by which it had been effected; its ambition (as we have ſeen in the public tranſactions of laſt year) was turned towards diſtant conqueſts, perceiving that the boundaries of its triumphs were for the preſent fixed in Europe. Various have been the reaſons aſſigned for this ſeemingly romantic expedition, which led from France the flower of its armies, with a commander, whoſe valour and wiſdom had hitherto enſured victory, and given a continental peace to his country.

But whatever were the ſecret cauſes (many of which are alledged by politicians), it appeared to open a wide field for adventure. The preparations denoted a voyage of no ordinary diſcovery; not only the common means of conqueſt were put in requiſition, but it ſeemed from the equipment, as if the point of deſtination was intended to undergo a moral as well as phyſical change.

A number of learned and ſcientific men were ſelected to accompany the expedition, and with the uſual ſtores of carnage and deſolation, were ſtowed inſtruments of knowledge and ſcience; air-pumps, electric machines, and printing-preſſes, were heaped together with balls, cannon, and gunpowder: and members from the French Inſtitute, deſtined to form Egyptian academies of literature, embarked with the future conquerors of Beys and Mamelukes. Curioſity exhauſted itſelf in conjectures at the event; and though the uncommon lading of ſcience and literature betokened a deſtination ſimilar to that which took place; yet the unuſual publicity with which it was conducted, while the ſecret was affected

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to be myſteriouſly kept. led many to ſuppoſe that the ſcientific part of the expedition was a ſtratagem of war planned by this modern Hannibal; and that ſome enterprize more effective than a deſcent into Egypt was intended. The conqueſt of Malta, indicated the route Bonaparte had taken; from which place, after leaving a garriſon of 3,000 men, the French fleet kept their courſe towards the north-eaſt, ſailing by the iſland of Candia (anciently Crete).

The Engliſh fleet, which had ſought for the French at Toulon, arrived at Malta two days after their departure; and finding the iſland in poſſeſſion of the republican forces, Admiral Nelſon, waſting no time before the fortifications of Malta, directed his courſe towards Alexandria, on the ſouth ſide of the Mediterranean, ſuppoſing that the French had directed their courſe to this coaſt. Having waited only two days before the port, the entrance of which had been forbidden by the Turks, the Engliſh conjecturing that the French fleet had taken ſome other route, went in ſearch of them, and immediately after their departure the French fleet appeared in view, about ten leagues diſtant from Alexandria, on the 1ſt of July.

Bonaparte, informed by the French conſul at Alexandria of the appearance of the Engliſh, ranged his fleet in the line of battle, in caſe of their return; but proceeding, notwithſtanding a heavy ſea, to diſembark four or five thouſand of his troops, near Marabou, which he led forwards to the pillar of Pompey, without cannon or artillery. Having ranged his little army in three columns, the French general proceeded to Alexandria, which he took by aſſault, after putting to flight the Arabs and Mamelukes who defended it, and of whom he killed about 300, on the 4th of July. The landing of the remainder took place on the entrance of the tranſports into the old port; but the neceſſary ſoundings not having been made, the fleet anchored in the road of Aboukir, where, as we have already related, the moſt of it was taken and deſtroyed, by the

Engliſh

Engliſh fleet under Lord Nelſon, in the ever memorable engagement of the firſt of Auguſt.

On his entrance into the city, Bonaparte aſſembled the Turkiſh chiefs, and explained to them the motives of his viſit, which he ſtated to be the deliverance of the country from the tyranny of the Beys, equally the enemies of the Porte and of the French; and having required from them an oath not to betray him, he left the greater number in the places which they occupied. Having remained three days to complete the organization of the place, which was left under the command of General Kleber, the French army began their march acroſs the deſart. The troops left at Alexandria, which, on their entrance, had taken their lodgings in the ſtreets, having been previouſly forbidden, under pain of death, by proclamation made on board every ſhip, from entering the houſes or moſques of the Turks, or committing any violence on their perſons, or thoſe of their families, built huts of palm branches, without the city, to ſhelter themſelves from the ſun. Whatever elevation had been given to the feelings of the invaders from the claſſic conſideration, that they were going to march through a country, proverbial not only for the fertility of its ſoil, but renowned as the birth-place of literature, and the ancient ſource of ſcience, from whence it had flowed in ſtreams through the world; this claſſic enthuſiaſm was inſtantly melted, as ſoon as the French trod the Egyptian ſhore. While the ſoldiers repoſed in the ſtreets, the men of arts and knowledge were lodged in the houſes of the few Europeans who reſided at Alexandria; and as the quantity of room was incommenſurate with the number, a dozen were obliged to crowd together in one chamber, under the heat of a torrid climate. The wretched food, and ſtill more the wretched water they were compelled to taſte—the ſtings of inſects, the filth and miſery with which they were ſurrounded, preſented Egypt to their imaginations and feelings, more as the country labouring under the ten plagues of Pharaoh, than the paradiſe of terreſtrial delights.

Of

Of the city of Alexandria, built by the architect Dinochares, containing the library of Ptolemy, and renowned for induſtry, commerce, and activity, nothing was left to the gaze of the viſitants, but ruins, barbariſm, and poverty; ſtupid-looking citizens, with long pipes, indolently ſitting in the public places, half-ſtarved and naked children, and the forms of barefooted women, in blue ſerge gowns, and black ſtuff viels, flying the approach, or running away with precipitation, when ever they met a Frenchman. The French beheld every where, monuments of antiquity, but every where miſplaced; pillars of granite, inſcribed with Egyptian hieroglyphics, ſtrewed the ſtreets, or, divided by the ſaw, ſerved for threſholds and benches; marble and porphyry baſes and capitals, baths and catacombs, were found in ruins, with nothing entire but a bath of black granite, deſtined for the muſeum of Paris, the pillar of Pompey, and the obeliſk of Cleopatra, which were yet in good preſervation.

But if the entrance into the country afforded no inviting proſpects, the march of the army acroſs the deſert to Roſetta completely filled up the meaſure of diſappointment. The ſoldiers, unaccuſtomed to the burning heat of the climate, unuſed to traverſe ſandy deſerts, and neglectful of the orders that had been given them, exhauſted their proviſions, or ſuffered them to ſpoil, long before they arrived at the end of their journey. Numerous and melancholy are the details of the horrors and hardſhips of this expedition by the ſufferers themſelves, who ſurvived theſe deſtructive journeys, and reached Europe; and great allowance muſt be made for their weakneſs or exaggeration; ſince it muſt be remembered, that military courage is not always equal to every kind of trial. However, the arrival of the army at Roſetta put a period to the greater part of the hardſhips to which they had been deſtined.

Roſetta is ſituated on the banks of the Nile, ſix miles from the ſea, well built, and ſurrounded with gardens and

and pleaſure grounds in high cultivation; and after the horrors of the deſert, a green country, interſperſed with date and ſycamore trees, acacias, orange trees, pomegranates, jeſſamines, and a thouſand other productions of the warmer climates, formed a beautiful contraſt, and opened a paradiſiacal ſcene to thoſe who had viſited Alexandria, and traverſed the fiery wilderneſs. After leaving a garriſon under the command of General Menou, at Roſetta, which made no reſiſtance to the entrance of the French, and another at Rhamania, a town ſituated farther up the river, on the entrance of the canal of Alexandria, to which place a column of the army had marched at the ſame time with that of Roſetta; Bonaparte continued his march along the Nile, towards Cairo, followed by a ſmall fleet, which conveyed his ammunition, and headed by gun-boats, to chaſe thoſe of the Mamelukes which ſometimes obſtructed the navigation, diſperſing at the ſame time the bands of Arabs who hung on the flanks. Hitherto no obſtacle of importance had preſented itſelf; but on the arrival of Bonaparte near Giſai, he found Murad Bey, who had aſſembled the whole of his forces near a village called Embabeh, to oppoſe his further progreſs. The Mamelukes, who formed an army of about 10,000 men, richly mounted on Arabian horſes, fought with deſperate courage. The action was bloody, but neither long, nor doubtful. A part of the army of the Mamelukes was either exterminated by the ſword, or drowned in the river; the reſt ſaved themſelves by flight towards Upper Egypt, where Murad Bey retreated. This battle has been named the battle of the Pyramids, as the action took place near theſe ſtupendous monuments. The French ſoldiers who found that they had no ordinary enemy to combat, from the obſtinate reſiſtance made by an inferior army, unſkilled in European tactics, found alſo the ſpoils of the vanquiſhed to be of no common value. Each Mameluke ſlain was a prize of conſiderable worth, as each carried with him in his march the amount of his fortune or his plunder: and

and the force of the army was encreaſed with the wealth of the ſoldier, as a conſiderable number of horſes and mules fell into their hands. As this battle was fought near Cairo, the principal inhabitants, commanders, and magiſtrates, together with the miniſters of worſhip, ſent deputations to Bonaparte, while the populace pillaged the houſes of the Beys and Mamelukes, their oppreſſors.

The army croſſed the river in boats, and entered the city in triumph, the 22d of July. Bonaparte without delay divided his army into three parts; one of which he diſpatched, under the command of General Deſaix, to purſue the remainder of the Mamelukes, who had fled into Upper Egypt; the ſecond diviſion he had left at Cairo, and marched in perſon with the third in purſuit of Ibraham Bey, who, with a rich caravan, had taken his flight towards Syria with too rapid ſpeed to be overtaken by the French: but this laſt expedition, though it failed in its principal object, occaſioned the deliverance of the caravan of Mecca, and the reſtitution of its contents, which had fallen into the hands of the Arabs.

On his return to Cairo, Bonaparte preſided at the ceremony which takes place annually on the overflowing of the Nile; which having celebrated with great pomp, he employed himſelf in arranging the details of the adminiſtration of Lower Egypt. He ſent garriſons to Damietta and Mauſoura, eſtabliſhing lazarettos at Alexandria and Damietta to force every ſhip coming from ſuſpected quarters to perform quarantine; and as the plague had diſcovered itſelf at the arrival of the French, he ordered the houſes to be waſhed, the ſtreets to be carefully ſwept, and the merchandiſe, and even garments of the inhabitants, to be expoſed to the air, publiſhing and enforceing inſtructions how to avert this dreadful ſcourge of humanity. He ordered, likewiſe, the conſtruction of workſhops at Giza for the different ſervices of the army, and formed an adminiſtration for coining money, publiſhing tables of the relative value

of French and Egyptian currency, in order to facilitate commerce.

But while Bonaparte was thus employed in theſe laudable purſuits in the internal part of Egypt, of which he had nearly aſſured the conqueſt, the fleet which had conducted him was deſtined (as we have ſeen) to add one more to the numerous trophies with which the Britiſh navy had been ſo frequently crowned, during the continuance of the war.

The French Admiral had drawn up his ſhips in order of battle as little diſtant from the ſhore as he judged it practicable and ſafe for this line to approach, when on the 1ſt of Auguſt, Admiral Nelſon appeared in ſight. By one of thoſe daring and ſcientific manœuvres which diſtinguiſh Britiſh naval commanders, Nelſon got between the French fleet and the ſhore with half of his ſquadron, and having thus placed the enemy between two fires, began the deſperate attack. The event has already been detailed in this Hiſtory. Victory ſoon declared itſelf in favour of the Engliſh. The brave Brueys was cut in two by a ball, his ſhip took fire from the wadding of the Engliſh ſhips; and the morning diſcovered their ſhips lying like logs upon the water; while almoſt every one of the French captains periſhed in the action.

This important victory, which deſtroyed the whole of the French naval force in the Mediterranean, inſulated at once the army of Egypt, and precluded all hopes of communication, and all means of ſupplies from France. The port of Alexandria, crowded with tranſports, was not without danger from the Engliſh, had the attack been made at the moment; but dazzled with the luſtre of their recent victory, they left the French time to conſtruct batteries, and put themſelves in ſuch a poſture of defence as would have rendered the attempt too difficult for achievement.

Admiral Nelſon having diſpoſed of his prizes by burning ſuch as he could not take away, left a ſquadron under Commodore Hood, to block up the port of Alexandria,

Alexandria, whilſt he ſet ſail for Europe. As this blockade cut off the communication by ſea with Roſetta, the ſupply of Alexandria was thereby impeded; and as the caravan eſtabliſhed in conſequence of this interruption was found inadequate to the ſervice, Bonaparte cauſed the canal which led from Rhamania to Alexandria, acroſs a deſert of forty miles, to be cleanſed; by which means not only this city received a large ſupply of proviſions, but the artillery, which it would have been difficult to tranſport by land, was conveyed more expeditiouſly and more conveniently by water to the general depoſit at Giza.

It was on this occaſion that the fertility of Bonaparte's genius in projecting reſources wonderfully diſcovered itſelf. Left entirely to his own invention, that great commander continued, with encreaſed activity, his civil and military operations. At Bolbeis and Salhaie, he conſtructed forts and redoubts to defend himſelf from the attacks of the Turks, on the ſide of Syria, and drew plans for the better defence of the port of Alexandria, and the city of Cairo. He formed alſo a great eſtabliſhment for the different mechanical arts, in which he was aided by the artiſts and ſcientific men who had accompanied the expedition, and with whom he formed a national academy, which aſſembled every five days. Among the objects which engaged more particularly the attention of this inſtitute, were the purification of ſaltpetre, and the conſtruction of wind and water mills, not only for grinding corn, as thoſe uſed by the natives were either turned by the hand, or by oxen, which rendered the operation both coarſe and expenſive, but alſo for the purpoſe of raiſing into ciſterns the water, which lying on the ground, acquired a brackiſh taſte.

The making wholeſome bread, and preparing fermented liquors, as a ſubſtitute for wine, engaged alſo the attention of the inſtitute, without neglecting points of leſs importance, ſuch as natural hiſtory, arts, antiquities, and other reſearches of ſcience and literature.

But

But Bonaparte did not altogether confine the amelioration of the ſtate of Egypt to the aſſembly of the inſtitute. At his invitation, the Sheiks from different provinces aſſembled at Cairo, where Monge and Berthollet ſubmitted to their deliberations certain objects of political œconomy; ſuch as queſtions relative to the laws of inheritance (which had hitherto been arbitrary), reformations with reſpect to the penal code, new modes of organizing the Divans in different provinces, and regulations reſpecting the finances; which topics the aſſembly diſcuſſed with calmneſs and dignity.

The feſtival of the anniverſary of the inſtitution of the French republic happening at this period, theſe Egyptian ſages joined in the celebration, which took place in Cairo with great pomp and ſolemnity. Triumphal arches and obeliſks were erected, with magnificent decorations; military evolutions were performed; horſe and foot races, fireworks, and every amuſement to which the Pariſians had been accuſtomed at the Champ de Mars, at Paris (except the aſcent of baloons, of which the machinery was in the poſſeſſion of Admiral Nelſon), were preſented to the gaze of the aſtoniſhed and almoſt petrified Egyptians.

By theſe courteous and polite manners, Bonaparte had endeavoured to gain the eſteem and confidence of his new allies, which a continuance of his victories over their oppreſſors, the Beys and Mamelukes, ſeemed to confirm, ſince at this epocha, the detachment of the army on the coaſt had defeated the forces ſent againſt it by Ibrahim, who had fled towards Syria; and Deſaix had fought and put to flight the troops of Murad, near the Pyramids of Saccara, in Upper Egypt.

This cordial friendſhip, was, however, only ſuch in appearance. Notwithſtanding the profeſſions of regard which the French had publiſhed for their ally the Emperor at Conſtantinople, and the aſſurances they had held out, that the invaſion of Egypt was a meaſure which merited or had obtained his aſſent, news was received at Cairo, that this alliance had met with ſo little

little of his approbation, that he had thought fit to declare war againſt the invaders, and the whole French nation. It was probably from ſome vague information which they received (for the firman or declaration of war was not yet known), that the faithful thought themſelves bound to regard the French as common enemies, and to execute, as far as lay in their power, the mandates of their ſovereign. The inſurrection was not of long duration. The inſurgents aſſembled in groups in the morning, and betrayed ſigns of an approaching ſedition. The French commander at Cairo, General Depuis, who had gone amongſt them to enquire into the cauſes of theſe aſſemblies, was maſſacred, together with ſeveral ſoldiers. The French immediately flew to arms, and the inſurgents poured in from all quarters. Every inſulated, or ſolitary Frenchman, fell a victim to their fury. The houſe of General Caffarelli was beſieged and taken. Thoſe who had defended it were put to death; and the philoſophical inſtruments, and working ſhops where they had been depoſited, were, by theſe unenlightened barbarians, completely deſtroyed. The French, recovering from their ſurpriſe, made a ſtrong and ſpeedy reſiſtance to the torrent; the cannon was pointed in every direction. The Turks and Arabs, who compoſed the maſs of the revolt, were ſoon put to flight, and took refuge in their moſques, which they conſidered as inviolable aſylums, ſince no Frenchman had hitherto preſumed to enter theſe ſacred places, from that regard for the religious uſages of the people which Bonaparte had never ceaſed to inculcate. But as theſe temples were perverted from their ſolemn cuſtoms, by the worſhippers themſelves, being turned into fortreſſes of war and offence, the French thought themſelves no longer bound to treat them with their wonted reſpect. Bonaparte, unwilling to come to violent extremities with the multitude, ſummoned the inſurgents to ſurrender their chiefs: the Turks refuſed to compromiſe, the moſques were forced by the ſoldiery, and all who were within were put to the ſword.

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This ill-judged revolt, fatal to the Turks and Arabs, ſerved only to confirm the power and influence of Bonaparte. The Egyptians had taken his part; and the Greeks, who had hitherto remained neuter, joined with the French on the day of the inſurrection; and conſidered the event as their releaſe from Turkiſh bondage. This acceſſion of opinion and force was deemed favourable to the further deſigns of the French general, who publiſhed the declaration of war made againſt him by the Ottoman Porte, which he had then received; and having taken means to ſecure the public tranquillity, he began to make preparations for the extenſion of his conqueſts, or, to uſe the revolutionary language of the invader, "for the further deliverance and regeneration of the eaſtern world."

Before we trace further the progreſs of the republican arms on the ſhores of Egypt, we ſhall again turn our attention to the very important tranſactions going forward at this eventful period on the continent of Europe.

The coalition againſt France had now been ſtrengthened by the acceſſion of the Ottoman Porte; who, in a manifeſto publiſhed the 1ſt of September, declared war againſt the French. Previous to the ſailing of the French fleet, it had been urged as an irreſiſtible argument, that its deſtination could not be for Egypt, that this would be a violation of a friendly territory; and afterwards the murmurs which aroſe on the impolicy and perfidy of the invaſion were huſhed by inſinuations that the expedition had been concerted by the Porte; and that the paſſage into India was to be purchaſed by the reduction of the rebellious Mamelukes. The declaration of the Porte was a haughty and formal denial of ſuch pretended treaty.

The directory did not condeſcend to anſwer this declaration otherwiſe than by lamenting the inconceivable blindneſs of their late ally, who, rejecting the protection which they offered, and miſled by the perfi-

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dious counſels of the coaleſced cabinet, had placed himſelf at the mercy of his conſtant and inveterate foe.

The French revolution had reconciled many a jarring intereſt, and, in conſequence of the new fraternization, a Ruſſian fleet, conſiſting of twelve ſhips of the line, appeared in the canal of Conſtantinople, and ſailed through the Dardanelles into the Mediterranean. This hoſtile meaſure was followed by other acts of accuſtomed political barbarity, the arreſt of every individual of the French, and the ſequeſtration of their property, the confining the civil agents of the republic in priſon, and chaining the priſoners of war to the gallies. The firſt operation of the combined fleets was an attack on the newly-created French departments in the Ægean and Adriatic ſeas; Cerigo, the ancient Cythera, an iſland belonging to the Venetians, and ceded to the French by the treaty of Campo Formio, was taken the 21ſt of September, after a ſlight reſiſtance, together with Zante and Cephalonia, which were abandoned by the French; and from thence the enemy proceeded to block the canal of the iſland of Corfu.

The entrance of the Auſtrian troops into the Griſons, indicated the near approach of freſh hoſtilities on the continent. In a proclamation dated from Feldkirk, 18th of October, it was ſtated that the ſole object his Imperial Majeſty had in view, was the preſervation of the republic and conſtitution, according to the tenor of exiſting treaties.

The French had aſſembled forces in the Reinthal, with proſpects of a different kind; but having been preceded by the Imperialiſts, they advanced no further than to take military poſitions on the frontiers.

The directory of Helvetia, in announcing to the legiſlative body the entry of the Auſtrian troops into the Griſons, obſerved, that they had been invited by the party which had manifeſted its opinion againſt re-union with Switzerland; and that thoſe who had ſhown contrary diſpoſitions were regarded as ſuſpected, and obliged to abandon their country.

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The Helvetic legiſlative body decreed, that an aſylum ſhould be offered to the fugitives; and as they ſuſpected that the ſame ſpecies of protection was meant to be extended by the Auſtrians towards Switzerland, the directory repreſented by a meſſage the neceſſity of re-organizing the army, ſince the honour and ſafety of the republic required extraordinary efforts, which ought to be proportionate to the imminent criſis of political events. They invited the council, in conſequence, to decree, that an extraordinary contribution ſhould be immediately levied, which ſhould be deducted in the payment of the ordinary taxes.

For ſome time paſt, the Neapolitan troops had been collecting in force, on the frontiers of the Roman republic, and they now began their march. They had diſcovered this hoſtile diſpoſition by various acts no-ways diſguiſed, previous to the motion of their troops, and they plainly ſhewed that they did not mean to keep long on terms of peace with the French republic; ſuch as the warm and friendly reception which they afforded to the fleet of Admiral Nelſon, the refuſal of receiving Mangouvit, the ſecretary of the French legation, and the contempt with which the ambaſſador Lacomb St. Michel himſelf had been treated. The ſummons which General Mack had ſent to the garriſons in the Roman frontiers, to quit their poſts, led Championet, who commanded in the Roman republic, to demand from him the cauſe of the hoſtilities which he threatened; repreſenting to him that he was charged by his government with the protection of the Roman republic: that peace continued to exiſt between the courts of Naples and France, and that the embaſſadors ſtill continued to reſide with the reſpective governments; and, that nothing had taken place, which could break the ties which the laſt treaty of peace had eſtabliſhed between the two countries. He likewiſe obſerved that, in this ſtate of things, the ſummons to the French troops to evacuate the Roman territory, the defence of which was confided to them, was a violation of treaties, and

of

of the rights of nations, which did not permit any ſolemn aggreſſion, but after a declaration of hoſtilities; and, that he being the aggreſſor, muſt take on himſelf the events of a war, which could only turn to the detriments of humanity.

General Mack anſwered Championet's letter, by obſerving, that the Neapolitan army had paſſed the frontiers of the Roman republic the preceding day, commanded by the King in perſon, to take poſſeſſion of the Roman territories revolutioniſed, and uſurped, ſince the peace of Campo Formio, and never acknowledged or avowed by his Sicilian Majeſty, or by his auguſt ally the emperor of Germany. The remainder of the letter contained an injunction to the French general, to evacuate the Roman republic, without violating that of Tuſcany; that a negative anſwer ſhould be conſidered as a declaration of war, and that his Sicilian Majeſty knew how to enforce the juſt demands which he addreſſed to him in his name.

The means of putting this menace in execution were no ways doubtful; and 76,000 men entered the frontiers; while their progreſs was only to be impeded on the ſide of the French by the feeble force of 200 Poles, and four demi-brigades of French republican troops; making in all not 10,000 men. To this ſhameful neglect of the army, the magazines were likewiſe empty; there were no arms, artillery, or proviſions; and Civita Vecchia had been ſo emptied, that there was not ſufficient powder to fire at a ſingle Barbary Corſair, which at that time had inſulted the port. The military ſituation of the Roman republic was rendered ſuch, that the march of the Neapolitan troops was rumoured at Paris to have been concerted with the French directory; and that, amongſt the reſt, the relation of the miniſter of war, who had long been the ſubject of the execration of the people, from his acknowledged avarice and corruption, had received from the court of Naples the price of betraying the Roman republic.

The news of the entering of the Neapolitan troops into the territories of the Roman republic, ſoon reached Paris. All was indignation and ferment. But to avert the reſentment of the citizens, the French legiſlative body, in conformity to a meſſage of the directory, declared war againſt the King of the two Sicilies and that of Sardinia.

The French troops having long been in poſſeſſion of the citadel of Turin, rendered the conqueſt of that kingdom an achievement of no difficulty. No reſiſtance was made to the further invaſion of Piedmont; but the King, by an act ſigned in the month of December, ſurrendered the country into the hands of the French. This act of abdication conſiſted of ten articles, of which the principal were, that the King declared his renunciation to the exerciſe of every authority; ordered his ſubjects of every condition to obey the proviſionary government which was about to be inſtituted by the French general, the Piedmonteſe army to conſider themſelves as an integrel part of the French army in Italy; and to obey its General in chief, as if it were himſelf; and that he ſhould go to the iſland of Sardinia, to remain there with the royal family. As the King had ſurrendered, no oppoſition further was made. A proviſionary government was organized, conſiſting of fifteen members, who were charged with every branch of the adminiſtration, and the nomination to all civil employments. The Piedmonteſe troops immediately adopted the French colours, and became a component part of the French army in Italy.

The Sicilian ſovereign, with the main body of the Neapolitan army, entered Rome the 29th of November; whilſt the combined fleets of England and Naples took poſſeſſion of the port of Leghorn. The French, unable to make any reſiſtance to ſo immenſe a ſuperiority of numbers, had retreated towards Civita Caſtellana, leaving a garriſon in the caſtle of St. Angelo. A ſummons of ſurrender was ſent to the commander of the garriſon, of which the moſt remarkable point was a me-

a menace by General Mack, *that if the Neapolitans were fired at, the ſick troops in the hoſpitals ſhould be put to death, one ſoldier for every ſhot.*

The governor ſurrendering the city, the King took poſſeſſion of it; but while he and his army remained in Rome, ſeveral columns of the Neapolitan army had been defeated at Reiti, and Macerata, by Generals Lemoine and Ruſca. Reinforcements pouring in to the French army from various parts, ſoon turned the tide of ſucceſs; and a general attack on all points taking place, the Neapolitan army was totally routed, loſing, in the various combats that took place, 12,000 priſoners, 100 pieces of cannon, and twenty pair of colours. Rome, evacuated by the Neapolitan King, was again taken poſſeſſion of by the French troops, who, in their turn, began their march towards Naples; and on the 31ſt of December, an armiſtice limited, or unlimited, was offered by General Mack to Championet, in a letter written from Capua, in which the ſeverity of the weather and the badneſs of the roads, were urged as the principal motives of this demand. The French general returned for anſwer, that as his army had overcome the difficulties, both of the way and of the weather, with their uſual patience, he ſhould not halt until he had made his entry into Naples.

Theſe hoſtile meaſures which had already taken place in Europe, and the ſtill more formidable preparations making by the leading powers for the renewal of the war, had, as might naturally been expected, a conſiderable influence on the deliberations of the contending plenipotentiaries aſſembled at Radſtadt. The decided conduct of the emperor of Ruſſia, who, on his acceſſion to the throne, ſeemed anxious to repair by pacific meaſures the miſchiefs which the warlike reign of his frantic predeceſſor had done to his country, the march of his troops, and the probable influence of a power hitherto almoſt unknown on the political ſcene of Europe, but which now preſented itſelf as holding the ſcales of empire, and the arbiter of the fate of nations,

tions, had fixed univerſal attention, and given a new colouring to the wavering and unſteady diplomacy of the congreſs at Radſtadt. At the opening of this aſſembly the mighty preponderancy of France had borne down all oppoſition. Pruſſia had eſpouſed its intereſts; and Auſtria had ſometimes huſhed into ſilence thoſe remonſtrants againſt the claims of France, whoſe rights of ſovereignty were to be made the ſacrifice of peace. But the coalition which had a-freſh taken place among the great contending powers, however deſirous the empire might be of peace, rendered its members more difficult with reſpect to the terms by which it was to be obtained; and the parties who had hitherto floated in uncertainty, and acted on inſulated principles of ſelf-preſervation, began to arrange themſelves under the banners of their reſpective leaders, awaiting the chances which might decide in their favour. On the ſide of Pruſſia were ranged the ſecular Princes, chiefly thoſe of the houſe of Brunſwick, Heſſe Caſſel, the Dukes of Saxony, of Mecklenburg, Wurtemburgh, and the Duke of Deux-Ponts. The electors of Saxony and Bavaria did not deeply intereſt themſelves in the diplomatic proceedings at the general congreſs.

To facilitate a general peace, the French miniſters had propoſed ſeveral conceſſions, and that ineſtimable bleſſing ſeemed to be at hand, and between the French and the Imperialiſts eſpecially, meaſures ſeemed to all appearance arranged and determined. The French miniſters, on receiving the adherence of the deputation to their ultimatum, expreſſed the pleaſing ſentiments which they felt on ſeeing their confidence in the prudence and humanity of the deputation had not been deceived. But this gleam of ſun-ſhine was ſoon overcaſt, and the ſtorms of war and deſtruction ſeemed to thicken more gloomy than ever.—The march of the Ruſſians, which had been known to all Europe ſix months before, and which had been the topic of ridicule and of epigrams at the directory, began to awaken their ſerious attention.

In

In a note remitted to the Imperial miniſter, on the 1ſt of January, 1799, the French plenipotentiaries made a formal declaration, that if the diet of Ratiſbon conſented to the entrance of the Ruſſian troops on the territory of the empire, or did not, by every means in their power, give it their ſtrenuous oppoſition, that ſuch entrance would be conſidered by France as a violation of the neutrality on the part of the empire; that the negociations which were then carrying on at Raſtadt ſhould be broken off; and that the republic and the empire ſhould be placed on the ſame footing as they were previous to the ſignature of the preliminaries at Leoben, and the concluſion of the armiſtice.

They further remarked, that the preparations and march of the Ruſſians which had been little foreſeen, were conſidered by them as dangerous to the domeſtic tranquillity of Germany, and eventually deſtroy the ſolid hopes which had been formed of a perfect reconciliation and a general peace between the two nations. —Every one muſt ſee clearly that Ruſſia, after having encouraged the war during ſix years, without taking any active part, had thus openly entered the field againſt France, with no other intention than that of preventing a continental peace from taking place; and with deſigns no leſs evident, of facilitating the plan of general uſurpation, which that cabinet had ſo long meditated.

To thoſe members of the congreſs who were really diſpoſed for peace, this declaration of the French miniſters gave much perplexity and concern. But thoſe who had loſt every thing, and who could only be benefited by the chances of war, did not diſſemble their ſatisfaction at the proſpect of the re-commencement of hoſtilities. The deputation, without debating the principle, voted that the note of the French miniſter ſhould be ſent to Vienna, as well as to Ratiſbon.

With this ſtep of the deputation, the French miniſters did not teſtify their ſatisfaction, as they hoped that the majority of the members would have declared that the empire

empire had not ſufficient means of oppoſing the march of the Ruſſians; and the Emperor permitting a numerous army, hoſtile to the republic, to paſs through his territories in order to penetrate into thoſe of the republic of France, they conſidered as an infringement upon the ties which bound both ſtates; and therefore they expected that his Majeſty would give a preciſe and ſatisfactory explanation on this ſubject. The conduct of the Emperor, however, had long ſince diſcovered, that no preciſe or ſatisfactory explanation would be given to ſuch a requiſition, when he had perſonally attended a review of the Ruſſian troops, and when, at the moment that the French declaration was preſented, theſe troops were marching from Brunn, where they had been thus reviewed, towards the frontiers of Bavaria.

Mean while, the French troops which had evacuated the right ſide of the Rhine, took up their quarters on the German ſide, as they no doubt thought themſelves juſtified in making ſuch proviſions againſt the approaching rupture, as would indemnify them for the time they had loſt by waiting for the iſſue of the negociation at Radſtadt, and ſo ceaſing from active operations. Their troops that were ſtationed along the left of the Rhine, between Cologn and Mentz, were joined on the right ſide by thoſe which had ſo long formed the blockade of Ehrenbreitſtein. This fortreſs had been compelled at length to ſurrender from famine, after a gallant reſiſtance of eighteen months. The French found in the place an immenſe quantity of ſtores, conſiſting of 192 pieces of artillery, about 100,000 balls, bombs, and grenadoes, 1,000,000 of cartridges, near 450,000 weight of powder, 5,000 muſkets, and other articles in equal profuſion.

The anſwer of the cabinet of Vienna to the note which the French miniſters had preſented to the deputation, reſpecting the march of the Ruſſian troops, was as little ſatisfactory as that of the diet of Ratiſbon. The Imperial court was aſtoniſhed that the French ſhould have conceived the idea of addreſſing the deputation of the

the empire on a ſubject which had no relation with their miſſion.—The deputation at the congreſs alſo, a few days after the reception of this note, coincided with the opinion of the Auſtrian cabinet, and declared that the march of the Ruſſian troops was an affair beyond its competence.

When relating the military operations of the French republic, at the concluſion of the laſt year, we left General Championet at his camp of Santo Germano, the ſpot from whence, but a few weeks previous, the King of Naples had iſſued his proclamation, promiſing the deliverance of the Romans from the French yoke, and refuſing the armiſtice offered him from Capua, by General Mack, on any other condition than the ſurrender of Naples. M. Pignatelli ſeeing the diſcontent of the Neapolitans, and knowing that a powerful party had conceived the hope of overturning the government, as well as the favourable diſpoſition of a conſiderable part of the Neapolitan officers towards the French, withdrew, deeply affected with the refuſal of the French general. Championet, in purſuance of his plan, transferred his head-quarters from Santo Germano to Tora. Here he was made acquainted with the ſucceſs of General Rey on the poſt of Gaeta, where that General had found immenſe magazines of ſtores of every kind, together with a vaſt train of artillery, which was of infinite ſervice in the deplorable ſtate of the French army. The poſſeſſion of this poſt was likewiſe of great importance, as it ſupported the right of the army, and ſecured the rear from any ſurpriſe by the landing of the enemy.

Here alſo Championet received firſt the news of the left and centre of his army. Duheſme, equally ignorant of the fate of the right, forced his march along the coaſt of the Adriatic, through a country interſected with rivers, the paſſages to which were guarded by troops who diſputed every ſtep. He had croſſed the Salinello and Trentino with great difficulty, although with inconſiderable loſs; and on his arrival near Vomano,

mano, found that the Neapolitans had croſſed to prevent his further progreſs. He repulſed them with ſucceſs; and perceiving that they were making preparations for a regular attack, on the following day he preſſed forward to the river, which he paſſed in their view; and having, by a rapid movement, thrown a body of troops on their flank, he gained a complete victory, and forced the right wing of the Neapolitan army to retreat.

A formidable inſurrection which took place in the rear of the French army at Teramo, of which the inſurgents, to the amount of 6,000, had taken poſſeſſion, and where they had maſſacred every perſon belonging to the French, did not arreſt the progreſs of the left wing. Duheſme ſent back detachments to reduce the inſurgents; and marching forward with the remainder, taking advantage of the conſternation into which he had thrown the right wing of the Neapolitans at the battle in the Vomano, he appeared before Peſcara, without artillery or ammunition, and by threats of a general ſack on the one hand, and promiſes of favour and clemency on the other, induced the garriſon to open the gates of this important fortreſs, which was the key of the Adriatic; and the poſſeſſion of which was equally uſeful to the progreſs of the left wing towards Naples, as that of Gaeta, on the Mediterranean, to the advance of the right.

General Lemoine, with the centre of the army, had croſſed the chain of the Appenines, in one of its moſt difficult paſſes, continually expoſed to the incurſions of the hoſtile peaſantry, who maſſacred without pity, where ever they met with little reſiſtance. The ſmall number of his forces did not permit Lemoine to keep up his communications with Aquila, being compelled to concentrate his troops in order to force the poſt of Popili, where the centre of the Neapolitan army was ſtrongly entrenched, and thereby prevented the junction of the centre of the French with its left. The reſtance was at firſt obſtinate. The bridge over the Peſcara

Peſcara was forced with difficulty, and the town was gained. The ſoft Neapolitans fled with precipitation, and their whole column might have been deſtroyed, had the French general continued the purſuit, which his ignorance of the poſitions of the other diviſions of the French army prevented him from effecting.

While the centre diviſion formed its communication with the right by Venafro, General Rey, leaving a garriſon at Gaeta, marched on towards Capua with the remainder of his column, and took his poſition along the Volturno, which covered that city to the ſea. General Macdonald, who commanded the main body, had fallen down from Calvi, and had marched on to reconnoitre the ground around Capua. A ſmart ſkirmiſh enſued, in which the French troops mingled with the Neapolitans, and the hope of entering the town along with the enemy, led the French to purſue them to the walls. The cannon of the place protected the retreat of the Neapolitans, and the French were compelled to retreat with ſome loſs to Cajazzo, where Macdonald took his poſition. His right flanked the high road leading from Capua, leaving a reſerve at Calvi, a daring and dangerous poſition, before a yet numerous enemy, covered by a river, protected by a ſtrong place, the maſter of the left ſide, and of all the fords of the Volturno, with the means of drawing conſiderable reinforcements from the capital behind, and which it was probable would uſe every effort to prevent the invaſion which threatened it.

This perilous poſition was the reſult, however, of circumſtances of which the General had not the command, and which he has not yet thought proper to reveal. His own plan was to have waited at Cajanello, to concentrate his army by the diviſions of the left and the centre, and not to have advanced into a country every where in inſurrection, until he had a force fitted to cope with the dangers to which he would be expoſed. The event juſtified Championet's intentions. On his return to the head-quarters at

Teano from Venafro, where he had gone to concert the operations of the ſiege of Capua with Lemoine, he found diſpatches from General Rey, informing him that a prodigious number of inſurgents had met at Sofia, who threatened to cut down the bridges on the Garigliano, and even menaced the camp. Strong detachments were ſent againſt them to re-eſtabliſh the communications. The inſurgents were in force, and not only oppoſed the paſſage of the French troops, but beat them, even when reinforced, in ſucceſſive engagements, and at length forced them to retreat. During theſe conflicts with the French troops, other bodies of inſurgents poſſeſſed of the bridges on the Garigliano, which they cut down, ſeized the park of reſerve belonging to the army, burnt the ammunition waggons, plundered the baggage, and made themſelves maſters of all the poſitions.

During theſe tranſactions in the rear of the French army, ſome general officers, commiſſioned by the viceroy of Naples to make propoſitions for an armiſtice, in order, as they ſaid, to conclude a ſolid peace, preſented themſelves before Championet, offering to ſurrender the city of Capua, and to draw a military line in which the armies ſhould wait the orders of their reſpective governments. Championet refuſed to enter into the diſcuſſion unleſs the ſurrender of Naples was comprehended in the armiſtice; aſtoniſhed, at the ſame time, that in the ſtate of diſtreſs in which the French army was, ſuch propoſitions ſhould be made to him. Theſe propoſitions were repeated the next day, and met with the ſame refuſal.

But, on returning towards the head-quarters at Teano, from this conference, Championet found the troops that guarded it had fallen back, and the town evacuated. The inſurgents had gained the heights, and were making diſpoſitions for an attack. Theſe bands were diſperſed; but the ſame evening, Championet was informed that the inſurrection was general, that every part of the kingdom was in arms, and that the

the inſurgents were commanded by officers of experience. Lemoine, who had croſſed the Volturno, ſent word that his head-quarters were attacked. No further news could be obtained of the left wing under General Duheſme. No detachments or couriers could reach him, and it was believed, that he had been ſurrounded by inſurgents.

The inſurrection gained on the rear of the French army. Championet's baggage and equipages were pillaged; one of his aids-de-camp was burnt alive! another was taken priſoner. At Tendi and Ihi, women, children, travellers, and ſoldiers, were all inhumanly maſſacred. This extermination (it is aſſerted by the French) took place in conformity to the orders of the King of Naples, ſigned with his own hand, ſtating, that as ſoon as the French ſhall have put foot on the territory of his kingdom, that all the communes riſe in a maſs, and begin the maſſacre.

If this manifeſto of carnage was true, it was but too punctually executed. The monſters of cruelty in human form, whoſe numbers were immenſe, fulfilled their commiſſion with barbarous joy. Thus ſurrounded, the French troops were left without proviſions. The numerous detachments which they had furniſhed to march againſt the rebels, had conſiderably diminiſhed their forces. The burning the park of artillery and ammunition waggons, left each ſoldier only a ſingle round of cartridge. The communication with Rome was cut off; a junction with the left wing was become impoſſible. The Neapolitans were making preparations for a general attack. A landing was about to take place at the mouth of the Garigliano, of the troops that had embarked at Leghorn, and were to fall on the rear, while General Mack made an attack in front.

Such was the poſition of General Championet, who had called in all his poſts, reſolved to conquer or periſh, when a trumpet preſented itſelf the third time at the advanced poſts of the French army, announcing the arrival of the former deputation with more extenſive powers.

powers. In this ſituation, heſitation was unneceſſary. The armiſtice was concluded between Championet and the Prince Milliano, the principal conditions of which were the ſurrender of Capua, with all its ſtores and artillery; the poſſeſſion of the country by the French army from Acerro before Naples; Benevento, and along the Adriatic, to ſerve as a line of demarcation; the evacuation of the Neapolitan ports by the ſhips of the hoſtile powers; and the payment of 10,000,000 of livres. This armiſtice was to be ratified by the reſpective governments; and no hoſtilities were to take place, in caſe of the rejection by either government, till after three days notice.

The King of the Two Sicilies, with the royal family, had been for ſome days ſafely landed at Palermo. The flight from Naples had been decided in that council; but it appears that the King for ſome time had reſiſted the propoſition, either diſbelieving the danger, or unwilling to abandon ſo precipitately the ſeat of government. Prevailed on by the remonſtrances of thoſe who adviſed the retreat, and who were ſaid to have uſed artifices, ſuch as pretended conſpiracies, popular inſurrections, &c. to bend him to ſubmiſſion, he created Pignatelli viceroy, and embarked on board the Britiſh ſhips during the night of the 1ſt of January, with his court, accompanied by the Britiſh, Auſtrian, and Ruſſian miniſters.

In order to preſerve the tranquillity of the city, a civic guard was formed, the officers of which were taken equally from the claſſes of the nobles and private citizens. The Spaniſh miniſter had been requeſted by them to negociate an armiſtice with the French general, but he had refuſed the commiſſion, ſince the authority of this body was inſufficient to grant him the neceſſary powers. The viceroy and General Mack, accompanied by ſeveral of the nobility, went anew, on the 14th, to entreat the Spaniſh miniſter to interpoſe, and procure an armiſtice and a capitulation for Naples. He at firſt accepted the office of peace-maker; but finding other

other obſtacles, he was compelled to decline it altogether.

The armiſtice having been concluded and ſigned on the 21ſt of January, the French placed a garriſon in Capua the following day, and the reſt of the army encamped without the city. Championet diſembaraſſed by the armiſtice, from a formidable oppoſition in front, took advantage of his preſent poſition to clear the country of the inſurgents in his rear. In a confidential note to the directory, which accompanied the news of the capitulation, Championet had painted the extreme diſtreſs of his army, and the imminent danger with which it was hourly threatened; that he was ſurrounded on all ſides, in want of proviſions, ammunition, and artillery of every kind; that the loſs of a battle would have been the total loſs of the army, and that a victory, even before Capua, would have been uſeleſs. He urged the importance of a place which ſupplied the army with all its wants, and opened to it the way to Naples; that a ſuſpenſion of arms with a government ſo perfidious, was nothing more than a ſtratagem of war; that ſuch articles were impoſed as would lead the Neapolitans to break the armiſtice, in various ways, whenever he pleaſed; that, at the time in which they received the news of the capitulation of Capua, he ſhould be maſter of Naples, having the means of revolutioniſing it from his head-quarters at Caſerta, by the active correſpondence which he was about to open with the diſaffected party, and who, as appeared by their conduct towards the viceroy, had not been ſtrangers to the ſpeedy concluſion of this uſeful treaty.

The news of the armiſtice, however, had reached the directory, before this afflicting ſituation of Championet was laid before them. The oppoſition made by this General to the ceſſion of the Roman republic, when the King of Naples took poſſeſſion of Rome, was an involuntary violation of the compact which, it had been aſſerted, had paſſed between this Prince and the French directory. The invaſion of Naples was deemed a ſtill more

more flagrant act of perfidy, but juſtified in ſome meaſure by the horrible orders for maſſacre, iſſued by the Neapolitan government. The directory were at the ſame time innocent of this rupture of the ſecret treaty. They could not indeed diſcover either to France, or to the army, their intentions; but they had taken every ſecret method of acting towards the King of Naples with loyalty. The ſacrifice of Championet and the French army, were but of little importance. The armiſtice had ſaved both. This armiſtice was ſo highly diſapproved by the directory, that a letter was written to Championet in the moſt ſevere and inſulting terms. This letter was, however, retracted ſome time after, when Championet had urged his unanſwerable reaſons. The directory, or rather ſuch of the members as were in the ſecret, had now to deal with an ignorantly diſobedient General, as well as an innocently betrayed King.

Championet received the news at Caſerta of the fate of the left wing of his army, which had been enveloped by inſurgents, as was ſuſpected, in the provinces of Abruzza. After the taking of Peſcara, Duheſme extended his line to Ortona and Lanciano, and then directed his march towards Popoli. After various dangers and eſcapes, Duheſme reached Sulmona and Venafro, and at laſt joined Championet, at his head quarters at Caſerta.

Unluckily ſome miſunderſtanding had ariſen between Generals Championet and Macdonald, in conſequence of which that active officer (Macdonald) had given in his diſmiſſion, and was replaced by Dufreſne. Lemoine was ſent to Paris to receive inſtructions from the directory reſpecting the kind of government to be given to Naples. Championet, in the mean time, was active in finding means of communication with the diſaffected in that capital. A committee was formed to this affect, which received a regular relation of what was paſſing in the city. The emiſſaries carried back inſtructions to the revolutionary party, who having come to a reſolution

lution of co-operating with the French for the overthrow of the old government, and having received new aſſurances which led them to rely on the fidelity and generoſity of the French, began to declare their intentions more openly. A particular circumſtance brought on the criſis ſooner than had been expected. A French agent had been ſent from the General under a ſafe conduct to Naples to expedite the payment of the money ſtipulated in the treaty. The viceroy was ſtill in the place, and received him very cordially; but the viſit of the agent and the object of his miſſion, were no ſooner known, than a violent fermentation took place. The French agent was nearly aſſaſſinated, and was only ſaved by the French party in the city. From this moment, the two parties, thoſe who were for the exiſting government, and thoſe who were bent on its deſtruction, no longer diſguiſed their ſentiments. One of the malcontents having been killed, the whole city was thrown into confuſion; ſome breathed nothing but revenge; others abetted the aſſaſſin. The ſtruggle became ſerious and alarming. The Lazaroni, who were in the royal intereſt, took poſſeſſion of all the arms, and, forming themſelves into bands, ran through the ſtreets calling upon the King and *St. Januarius*. General Mack was ſignalized as a traitor; the remains of the army which he commanded, were conſidered as revolutionary Jacobins, corrupted by French gold. Even the viceroy himſelf was become an object of ſuſpicion; and apprehenſive of the danger that awaited him from both ſides, he wiſely withdrew to his barge, which rode in the bay, and ſet ſail for Sicily.

The Neapolitan ſoldiers, for the moſt part ſtrangers to the climate which they inhabited, and intimidated by the menaces of the Lazaroni (a ſpecies of ſoldiery with whoſe tactics they were unacquainted) had no better part to take than to throw themſelves as deſerters into the French ranks. This deſertion was protected, and in two days the Neapolitan army was quite diſorganiſed and annihilated.

General

General Mack, informed of what was paſſing, having no ſoldiers to defend him, and abandoned to the barbarous fury of the Lazaroni, provided himſelf with a retreat, and demanded an aſylum from Championet. His danger became ſo imminent, that he arrived at the head-quarters, at Caſerta, on the heels of the officer whom he had ſent to ſolicit for protection. The myſtery of 10,000 men oppoſing and vanquiſhing 80,000, began to be unfolded. The reſpective governments and the armies were continually at croſs purpoſes, and thwarting each other's deſigns. Championet, little ſuſpected that the Roman republic had been ſold to the King of Naples; and Mack was equally far from imagining that he ſhould be driven to ſeek refuge with his army from the Neapolitans, in the camp of that very enemy which he was ſent to deſtroy.

Championet received General Mack with great civility; and, at parting, gave him a paſſport and an eſcort to protect him to Milan, where the directory cauſed him to be arreſted as a priſoner of war, a meaſure to which Championet was no way acceſſary, and which he reprobated in ſtrong terms. The Lazaroni, who were exaſperated at ſeeing their prey eſcape them, collected themſelves in a body, and ruſhing like madmen on the advanced poſts of the French, at Ponte Rotto, routed the advanced guards, and penetrated even to the line. They were received by the troops under arms, who, without giving the Lazaroni time to obſerve their poſitions, bore down on the ragged multitude, and having killed numbers, and diſperſed the reſt, returned back to their poſts. The Lazaroni had previouſly made themſelves maſters of the Caſtello Novo, and of the fort Camine; and had proclaimed that they were going to exterminate the French, and their partiſans, the Jacobins. Under pretence of ſearching for thoſe diſaffected perſons, they had begun to break open the houſes of the inhabitants, and to commit depredations. Naples was about to be given up to every ſpecies of horror, under the rule of theſe ruffians, when the young Prince

Prince of Molliterno, a ſecret friend to liberty, and of a family which had conſiderable weight with the people, mingled himſelf with the Lazaroni, and ſucceeded in perſuading them to elect himſelf to be their General. He had begun, in concert with the reigning authorities of the city, to re-eſtabliſh order, and to enter into negociation with the French General, when the Lazaroni, having intimation of his deſigns, revolted againſt their chief, and began again their plunder. The pretended Jacobins and their property were the principal objects of their fury. Among the victims who periſhed by the hands of thoſe bloody barbarians, were the Duke de la Torre, and his brother Clement Filomavino, whom they maſſacred and burnt! The Duke was diſtinguiſhed by his multiplied acts of beneficence, and by his refined taſte for the arts.

The attack of the Lazaroni on the vanguard of the French, which was a rupture of the armiſtice, was alſo with Championet the ſignal for an attack on Naples. Molliterno and his friends, having loſt all hopes of reſtraining theſe ruffians, found that the only means which were left of ſaving the city were to ſeize on the forts, and call the French to their aſſiſtance. They had gained poſſeſſion of the caſtle of St. Elmo, the news of which was the ſignal of advance to the French. The diviſion under General Dufreſne, lately the right wing commanded by Macdonald, marched forward, and encamped in two lines before Averſa. The vanguard was poſted at Melito, and within gun-ſhot of Naples.

The diviſion of Duheſme marched from Acerro, and, after diſperſing a vaſt maſs of furious peaſants in arms of various kinds, encamped in two lines to the left of Naples. Theſe lines were ſtrengthened by a brigade detached from Benevento, which was attacked by a band of five or ſix thouſand peaſants, who, unſkilled in the ſtratagems of war, fell into an ambuſh near the Caudine Forks (the ſpot where the Romans, in ancient times, paſſed under the yoke of the Samnites), and

were almoſt entirely cut to pieces. Such detachments were made from the different poſts in the country around Naples, as could be ſpared from a ſervice no leſs dangerous than the attack of the city, which was that of quelling inſurrections, and cruſhing theſe hordes of ruffians.

Next day theſe two diviſions, which were charged with the attack of Naples, drew nearer to the town, and gained the heights. Two battalions took poſſeſſion of Capo di Monte, to eſtabliſh a correſpondence of ſignals with Fort St. Elmo. The firſt grand diviſion placed their centre between the city and Capo di Chino; the vanguard was poſted in the ſuburbs. The ground to the left of the city was occupied by the left diviſion, and joined to the right by a brigade under General Ruſca. The artillery under General Eble was placed in ſuch poſitions as gave it the command of Naples.

Every thing was ready for the aſſault. Naples was about to be delivered over to all the horrors to which a city is doomed when taken by ſtorm; and the impatient ſoldiers were only waiting for the ſignal of attack. Championet ſtill heſitated: he was anxious to prevent ſuch an unneceſſary waſte of life, and ſigned a proclamation to this effect, which he addreſſed by the chief of a ſquadron, to the magiſtrates of the city. But Naples had now no magiſtrates—the place was in a complete ſtate of anarchy. Such of the inhabitants as had not taken arms, remained cloſely ſhut up in their houſes, or had concealed themſelves from the fury of the Lazaroni, who, to the number of 60,000, had ſworn to defend themſelves to the laſt. The meſſenger of Championet was received by a volley of muſquetry; a ball broke the pommel of his ſaddle; and, on his attempting to make them underſtand the General's propoſitions, another volley forced him to retreat.

Championet had imagined that the formidable appearance of his troops would have induced the Lazaroni to propoſe ſome terms towards a compromiſe; and impreſſed

preſſed with this humane ſentiment, had deferred the attack to the next day; but the impatient Lazaroni, during the night, made ſeveral ſallies, and kept up ſo terrible a fire, that the General loſt all hopes of gaining them by any lenient means whatever, and that force was abſolutely neceſſary, and the aſſault was definitively reſolved on. Information had been received, during the night, that the patriots in the fortreſs of St. Elmo waited the ſignal of the French, in order to open their fire on the city. Orders were given for the two battalions on Capo di Monte to march in the ſilence of the night, and by bye-ways to join the garriſon at St. Elmo; to announce their arrival by the junction of their colours with thoſe of the patriots, when the citadel was to make a general diſcharge of all its artillery. On this ſignal General Eble was to open all his batteries. The whole army which inveſted the city, were to ruſh forward, and bear down every thing that oppoſed them. Columns armed with torches were to carry fire and deſolation wherever they could penetrate. Such were the orders given, and alas! for ſuffering humanity, too punctually executed. The Lazaroni met the attack, or rather made it, with aſtoniſhing addreſs and courage. They fought every where, to uſe the language of a General who headed one of theſe diviſions, like lions. When repulſed, they returned with redoubled courage to the charge, and ſeveral times repulſed the French in their turn. The battle was dubious for a long time. At length they loſt ſome ground, and part of their artillery. The French were in poſſeſſion of ſeveral ſtreets. The Lazaroni were haraſſed, preſſed, but not vanquiſhed. Night overtook the combatants: the fire continued. The French troops, overcome with fatigue, formed themſelves into equal diviſions. The one half kept up the fight, whilſt the other lay down to reſt amidſt corpſes and ruins! the day dawned, the fury of the combatants was kindled a-freſh, and with redoubled rage: prodigies of valour were diſplayed on both ſides,

ſides, every man was that day a hero: the final victory was yet uncertain.

A momentary ceſſation of carnage had taken place, from the exhauſted ſtate of both parties; and Championet, in order to terminate the bloody conteſt, had given orders to force the paſſages to Caſtello Novo, and the Fort del Carmine, with the bayonet; to penetrate into, and turn the quarter of the Lazaroni. A diviſion was ordered to march into the heart of the city, and take poſſeſſion of the palace; and another to form its junction with the garriſon of St. Elmo, who had already gained a portion of the town. Mean while, Championet had ſpoken to ſome of the inhabitants, who had crept forth from their houſes, and had given them aſſurances of protection. Reſpect for St. Januarius was the charm that operated moſt on their hearts. The report of the General's reſpect for Januarius was carried into the ranks of the Lazaroni. The cry of *Vivent les Francois! (Live the French!)* began to be heard. A guard of honour was ſtationed at the church of this tutelary Saint, the counterſign was, *Reſpect for St. Januarius!* The General's converſion flew all over the city. The avenues to the church were crowded. One of the chiefs of the Lazaroni placed himſelf at the head of the French. He harangued his terrible ſoldiers; ordered them to ceaſe their fire, and ground their arms. He was heard with reſpect, and obeyed. A ſhout of general joy ſucceeded the ſhrieks of horror with which the city reſounded; the war was ended, and peace reſtored.

By a ſingular combination of circumſtances, the French in this campaign, to make allies of their enemies, as it were, on the field of battle, a part of the regular troops had gone over with General Mack previous to the entry into Naples; the Lazaroni, who had hitherto been the moſt ſtrenuous defenders of the royal cauſe, were now as loud in their vociferations in what they called the cauſe of liberty; and like ardent proſelytes to a new ſyſtem, began to evince the ſincerity

of

of their converſion, by proceeding to pillage the royal palace, and the houſes of thoſe who had been attached to the court. The demonſtrations of this zeal were immediately repreſſed by Championet; who, after having taken poſſeſſion of all the forts, and encamped his army on the heights around Naples, appointed Dufreſne commander of the place, ordering all the inhabitants to be diſarmed, leſt among a people ſo capricious and inflammable, ſome accidental ſpark ſhould fall which might once more ſet them in combuſtion. It was owing to this prudent meaſure that the tranquillity of the city was not diſturbed for a moment, during the reſidence of the French in that capital, which, otherwiſe, might have been laid in aſhes.

The army of Rome was proclaimed the army of Naples, the day after the ceſſation of hoſtilities. The General aſſembled the troops, and announced this order amidſt the ſhouts of the populace and the thunder of artillery. Mount Veſuvius, which had been tranquil for five years paſt, lighted the ceremony on that day with its flames. This phænomenon, which had hitherto been regarded as an indication of the anger of their favourite St. Januarius, was now hailed as a favourable omen: but, leſt the inhabitants ſhould miſtake the motives of the invaſion, and take umbrage at the denomination given to the French army, Championet on the 24th of January, addreſſed to the Neapolitans the following proclamation:

"You are at length free: your liberty is the only reward which France claims from its conqueſt; and the only clauſe of the treaty of peace which the army of the republic has juſt ſolemnly ſworn, together with yourſelves, within the walls of your capital, and on the ruins of the throne of your laſt King.

"Woe be to him who ſhall refuſe to ſign with us this honourable compact, in which the whole of the advantage is on the ſide of the conquered; and which leaves nothing to the conqueror but the glory of having conſolidated your happineſs: ſuch a one ſhall be treated

ed as a public enemy againſt whom we remain in arms.

"If there be any among you who have hearts ungrateful enough to reject that liberty which we have purchaſed for you at the price of our blood—or any whom inſanity would lead to regret a King who has forfeited whatever right he had to command them, by the violation of the oath which he had made to defend them, let them fly to the diſhonourable ſtandard of perjury: eternal war againſt them, let them be cut off!"

The ſequel of this lofty and inflated proclamation ends with ſaying—"Let the people feel no apprehenſions for the liberty of their worſhip: let the citizen be no longer anxious for the ſecurity of his property," &c. &c.

This proclamation, which inſtructed the Neapolitans with the intentions of the French general, was immediately followed by an edict, entitled "A law for the proviſionary government of the Neapolitan republic;"

The trophies of victory ſent to Paris were followed ſoon after by ambaſſadors from Naples, to preſent the vows of the new republic, and to fraternize with the French government. But the ambaſſadors were no more in the ſecret than the General, and were received with every mark of neglect and contempt. Had they been favourably received, the King of Naples would not have failed to charge them with duplicity, and a further violation of the compact mutually agreed upon by the King and the directory. But the vengeance of the weak and inconſiſtent government did not long delay falling on Championet himſelf. A decree of the directory had enjoined the attendence of civil commiſſaries on the operation of the armies. In the plunder of Italy, the commanders were ſuſpected of taking more than their ſhare. The commiſſaries were ſent to controul, or monopolize theſe robberies. Championet reſiſted the operations of Faypoult, the commiſſary ſent by

by the directory; and, by a counter-decree, broke the commiſſion, and diſmiſſed the agents: by this daring act diſavowing the authority of the directory, and diſputing a right not allowed them by the conſtitution, of creating ſuch commiſſions, and giving them the attributes and privileges which the decree of the directory authoriſed them to exerciſe. Had the directory been itſelf free from blame, and their conduct pure, no one would have regretted meaſures which ſhould put a ſtop to the depredations of the Generals; but in the preſent inſtance it was little elſe than a ſtruggle between civil and military pillagers.

But while Championet was employing himſelf in reducing the inſurgents in the provinces, in extracting treaſures for the arts, by making new perforations into the ruins of Pompeia and Herculaneum, and aſſiſting the proviſionary government in the organization of the new republic, he was ſtruck with a mandate from the directory, which ordered him, together with the Generals Rey, Duheſme, Dufreſne, Bonami, and Brouſier, to ſurrender themſelves priſoners of ſtate, and undergo a court-martial for diſobedience.—Theſe officers obeyed the mandate, and returned to France; but the ſtruggle which ſoon after took place at Paris, and which overthrew the directory, prevented this trial from taking place.

The revolutionizing ſyſtem was carried on among the leſſer ſtates of Italy; and the army in Piedmont, and the Ciſalpine republic, received orders that, inſtead of marching againſt Tuſcany, they were to attack the little republic of Lucca. This territory was invaded by the French, who immediately impoſed on it a contribution of 2,000,000 of livres.

The principles of liberty had made too much progreſs in this republic for the inhabitants not to ſeize the opportunity, while the French diſburthened them of their money, to rid themſelves alſo of their oligarchical government. But the governors wiſely averted the ſtorm, and took the lead in the revolution, agreeing to

to the popular requiſition, by decreeing the abolition of all privileges and titles, the ſovereignty of the people, the integrity and independence of the republic, the return, as much as poſſible, to the conſtitution before the uſurpation of 1556. They then ſet about forming a new ſyſtem of government for themſelves, in which their deliberations were regulated by the directions of the French.

While theſe operations were paſſing in Italy, the ſtate of the internal government of France was faſt getting into derangement. The failures of the finances alarmed the directory, and they were monthly reminding the legiſlative body that the public ſupplies were in a ſtate of decay.—A tax on ſalt was propoſed; but on account of its being reckoned odious under the old government, it was thought proper to drop it. This tax being rejected, part of the deficit was ſupplied by a tax on doors and windows; and other temporary expedients were adopted.

We ſhall now turn our attention to affairs of much more moment, and which intereſted the repoſe of mankind in a much higher degree.

Although war had long been decided on by the court of Vienna, a determination which had been long known to the French directory, the forms at leaſt of negociation were ſtill continued at Radſtadt.

This mockery of negociation was little elſe than a pretext for ſpinning out the time, ſince the armies of neither of the belligerent powers were ready to take the field, and enter upon the dreadful work of mutual deſtruction. This, however, they were ardent to ſet about. The Imperial troops, excepting ſuch as were ſtationed in the territory of Venice, were diſperſed in Bohemia, and in provinces diſtant from the frontiers of Bavaria, in order to facilitate the recruiting of the thinned ranks of their armies; and the making ſuch other preparations as were neceſſary for the opening of the campaign. The tardy march of the Ruſſians was alſo a primary motive with the Auſtrian cabinet for delay, and

and the project of uniting a plan of operations between the Imperial armies of Germany and Italy, by the Tyrol, was yet impracticable, on account of the ſeverity of the weather.

The French were not without their reaſons for delay in warlike operations. During the laſt fifteen months, the armies, inſtead of receiving powerful reinforcements, had been lamentably diminiſhed. Thirty-four thouſand of the choiceſt troops, accuſtomed to victory, led on by Generals of the higheſt reputation and talents —Bonaparte, Berthier, Kleber, Deſaix, and other gallant commanders—this union of ſkill and courage, which had conſtituted the military ſoul of the French armies, and which inſpired confidence, all this preſtige of fortune had left the troops to dwindle and languiſh, without ambition to ſhine in the field, or earn laurels for the glory of their country. The complement of the armies of the Rhine and Italy appeared, indeed, in the pretended muſter-roll of the miniſter of war, and the legiſlative body had honourably voted the ſums neceſſary for their ſupport; but when the ſeaſon for taking the field approached, it was found that this nominally formidable force, on which the French had founded their higheſt hopes, figured only on Sherrer's regiſters. The military conſcription had long been voted, and would have filled up this ſcandalous chaſm, had the levy been made with more diligence, or had the conſcripts entered the ſervice with their uſual alacrity. But the approach of war was looked upon with a kind of gloomy reluctance by all claſſes of citizens. Not only was all confidence in the operations of government entirely loſt, but the detail of its corruption was every where diſſeminated. The firſt authorities in the ſtate did not diſſemble their apprehenſions of diſgrace and defeat, long before their armies entered the field. Conſcious how much their reputation ſuffered in the public mind, and how deeply they were deteſted, they had endeavoured to throw the blame on national indifference and diſaffection.

In the mean time, the note which the French miniſters had delivered to the diet at Radſtadt, reſpecting the march of the Ruſſians, was little attended to, as the plenipotentiaries from the reſpective courts had already taken their meaſures. The Ruſſians ſtill continued to march, and the Emperor of Germany having already aſſembled the greateſt part of his forces on the Lech, the French armies croſſed the Rhine, and penetrated into Suabia, under the command of General Jourdan. Official information of this invaſion was communicated to Count Metternich by the French plenipotentiaries at Radſtadt, who remitted to him, by order of the directory, the following proclamation, ſigned by the preſident, and dated the 20th of February :—

"The troops of his Majeſty the Emperor, King of Hungary and Bohemia, in deſpite of the convention concluded at Radſtadt have paſſed the river of the Jun, and have croſſed the frontiers of the hereditary ſtates. This march has been combined with that of the Ruſſian troops, already in the Auſtrian dominions, and who openly declare, that they are coming to attack and combat the French republic. Ever faithful to its engagements, uniformly animated by the moſt ſincere deſire of maintaining peace, always inclined to ſuppoſe that the ſame ſentiments actuate his Majeſty the Emperor, the French government has demanded from him a ſatisfactory declaration reſpecting the march of the Ruſſian troops, and the paſſage which he has granted them.

"The Emperor has ſtill continued ſilent; the executive directory therefore is bound, by the neceſſity of lawful defence, and by the obligation impoſed on every government to provide for its ſafety, to order the French armies to take ſuch poſitions as circumſtances require. But they declare that their wiſh for peace is unchangeable; and that at the moment when his Imperial Majeſty ſhall announce by a friendly declaration, that the Ruſſians have evacuated his ſtates, and that his troops have repaſſed the lines agreed on by the convention at Radſtadt,

Radſtadt, the French armies will fall back to their former poſitions."

This proclamation was accompanied by an addreſs from General Jourdan to his army, on their entrance into Germany, the tenor of which was nearly the ſame as that of the proclamation. The French miniſters obſerved in a note which they remitted at the ſame time to Count Metternich, that they were authoriſed to declare, that the march of the army ought to be conſidered only as a precaution neceſſiated by circumſtances; that the deſire of peace on the part of the French government continued to be ardent and ſincere; and that the directory perſiſted in the intention of concluding peace with the empire, on the ſuppoſition always that the empire would declare itſelf againſt the march of the Ruſſians.

The Imperial plenipotentiaries taking the note of the French miniſters into conſideration, came to a concluſum, that the note of the French miniſters ſhould be ſent to the general diet of the empire, together with the proclamation and addreſs; and that the preſent deliberation ſhould be remitted, as uſual, to the commiſſary of his Imperial Majeſty; that he ſhould be requeſted to impart to the French miniſters the deciſion of the deputation, and to expreſs its ardent deſire to concur in all poſſible efforts for a ſpeedy and laſting peace. The Imperial commiſſary, however, did not diſcover ſentiments ſo pacific, as they of the deputation. He informed the members by a note, that the Imperial commiſſion could not approve the concluſion, ſince, from the actual ſituation of affairs, their anſwer ſhould have been confined to the ſimple acknowledgement of having the French miniſter's note, and having communicated it to the general diet; and that all further declaration ſhould have been ſuſpended till the ulterior deciſion of the Emperor and the empire, agreeable to a former concluſum of the deputation. From this declaration it was almoſt officially clear, that the cabinet of Vienna, by throwing obſtacles in the way of the congreſs,

greſs, not only had decided on war, but was alſo reſolved to force the empire into hoſtilities.

A ſtill more overt act on the part of the Emperor was the expulſion of Bacher and Alquer, the one the French reſident at Ratiſbon, and the other ambaſſador at Munich; and the order for this groſs inſult to the repreſentation of the French nation was heightened by being attended with the exerciſe of military force, and the miniſters from France were obliged to obey the requiſition.

Hoſtilities, however, ſtill more ſerious than thoſe contained in notes and reſcripts, between the Emperor and France, had actually commenced. The army of Jourdan, amounting to 40,000 men, had croſſed the Rhine at Kehl and Baſil, on the 1ſt of March. The vanguard, commanded by General Vandamme, followed by the column of the centre, had already croſſed the Hornberg, and reached to Villingen; the column of the left, under General St. Cyr, was at Frendenſtadt; and the right, commanded by General Ferino, marched by the towns of Rheinfeld and Waldſhut. An army of obſervation, under the command of Bernadotte, had advanced into the Palatinate, at the ſame time that Jourdan croſſed the Rhine. Manheim was occupied by the French; Philipſburg was ſummoned to ſurrender, but protected by inundations and otherwiſe in a ſtate of reſpectable defence, was out of the reach of farther inſult. Bernadotte leaving Philipſburg, marched to Heidelburg, and penetrated into the valley of the Neckar, as far as Heilbron.

The war being now finally decided upon by both parties, the advantage which the occupation of Switzerland gave the French, could not fail of determining the government to act offenſively; there was no other method of preventing the junction of the Ruſſian and Auſtrian army on the Adige, than to diſlodge the latter from the ſtrong poſition which it held on that river. The benefit reſulting to the French from this operation, depended on the ſucceſs of the attack which ſhould be made

made on the frontiers of the Tyrol; but to ſecure its execution, it was neceſſary to ſeize on the paſſes of the mountains, and divert the attention of the imperialiſts, by drawing their principal forces towards the Danube. In covering this central attack, Switzerland was likewiſe to ſupport the right of Jourdan's army, which was now called the army of the Danube.

This vaſt, but well-conducted plan, was developed with ſingular preciſion and rapidity. The important point was to gain poſſeſſion of the Griſons, and of the valley of the Rhine, in order to penetrate into the valley of the Inn; and, as the principal effort of the French armies was to be directed by their centre, which was ſufficiently ſtrong, their movements on the Rhine began by the left, at the fartheſt diſtance from the real theatre, on which the French were intereſted in carrying on the war. They, therefore, took advantage of their poſition in Switzerland to get rapidly on the eaſtern ſide of the mountains of the Black Foreſt, and gain the heights of the Lake of Conſtance, in order to unite and ſupport their attacks; when the Archduke, who had aſſembled the greateſt part of his forces, on the right ſide of the Lech, paſſed this river on the 5th of March. His firſt care was to throw a body of troops and proviſions into Ulm, which was threatened, and which was to flank the right of his army. That part of his army which was cantoned on the left ſide of the Danube marched by Donaworth upon Memmingen, where he fixed his head-quarters. The imperialiſts had no leſs an intereſt than the French in endeavouring to make their lines contiguous. The Archduke took a poſition on the Inn, parallel to the general line of the operations of the French.

The left of the Archduke's army was at Kepten, the centre of Memmingen, and the right extended to the Ulm; which poſition had the advantage of being both offenſive and defenſive, and afforded him the means of ſupporting the opperations of the left in the Voralberg,

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in proportion as he advanced: the lake which was the chief obſtacle to the operations of the French, covered the marches and counter-marches which he was obliged to make, and doubled the ſtrength of this wing.

Such was the diſtribution of the reſpective forces of the Auſtrian and French forces in Germany, previous to their commencing hoſtilities and mutual ſlaughter.

The French forces in Switzerland, and in Suabia amounted at this time to about 80,000 men; the Auſtrian forces from the Tyrol to the left of the Danube were about 110,000 men. The French and Auſtrian diviſions on the Lower Rhine amounted each to about 25,000 men.

The French general, perceiving that the Auſtrian army, inſtead of bending its forces towards the Danube, kept a middle line between this river, and the eaſtern ſide of the Lake Conſtance, haſtened to ſeize on ſuch poſitions in the intervals as ſecured him the means of keeping up his communication, by Schaffhauſen, with the army in Switzerland. He called in his left wing, under General St. Cyr, which marched from Frenchenſtadt, by Rothweil, and advanced as far as Moſkirch. Thus, in a few days, after going out of winter quarters, thoſe formidable hoſts were in face of each other, and occupied parallel poſitions almoſt in a contiguous line of battle, from the banks of the Danube to the Adriatic gulph.

Hoſtilities commenced on the right of the two French armies, which were oppoſed to the main army of the imperialiſts, and the diviſion detached to the left under the orders of the Archduke. Maſſena had eſtabliſhed his head-quarters at Alſtatten, in the Rheinthal, where, with an army of 45,000 men, he threatened the entrance of the Griſons; while Jourdan was drawing his forces cloſe to the Lake of Conſtance, and had advanced as far as Stockach, Maſſena marched to Sargans and ſummoned General Auffenberg to evacuate the Griſons.

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That General refusing to comply, Maſſena, in order to cover his operations, directed a feigned but vigorous attack to be made on Feldkirch, in order to divert Hotze from giving the neceſſary aſſiſtance to Auffenberg at Coire; while he detached a column on the right, to turn Coire by the heights, and attack the bridges and poſts on the forks of the Rhine, above the town of Reichnau. The centre column at the ſame time paſſed the Rhine, and, taking poſſeſſion of the poſt of Baltzars, cut off the communication between the Griſons and Feldkirch. After conſiderable reſiſtance, the poſt of Mayenfield and Zolbruch, at the entrance of the valley were forced. The fort of Lucienſteg was taken by aſſault, and the French having forced another paſſage acroſs the river at Ragatz, and taking the poſt of Holdenſtein, General Auffenberg, who was nearly ſurrounded, and who had no means of receiving ſuccour, or making good his retreat, was compelled to ſurrender Coire, and his whole diviſion which conſiſted of 7,000 men.

Maſſena, while in poſſeſſion of the Griſons, directing an attack, which proved unſucceſsful, on Feldkirch, detached a whole diviſion by his right towards the Jun, Caſa Bianca entered the Haut-Engadin with ſuperior forces, and compelled Laudohn to fall back.

Such were the firſt movements of the French army in Switzerland; but in order to give the army of the Danube the means of profiting by the ſucceſs, the entrenchments in the opinion of military men, ought to have been forced, and the communication opened between Maſſena and Jourdan, by Bregantz, Lindau, and the eaſtern ſide of the Lake of Conſtance. Until theſe operations had been effected, Jourdan could not dare to riſque the ſafety of his army, but remained quiet in his poſitions to watch the moment when he could draw off the left of the Duke's army, to turn the Lake himſelf, and facilitate a deciſive attack on Feldkirch. With this in view, Jourdan manœuvred by his left wing, which he extended to Sigmaringen, on the Danube,

Danube, while his centre was at Moſkirch, and his right at Uberlingen, on the borders of the Lake. To counteract this movement, the Archduke ordered the vanguard of his army to take a poſition before his left, and paſſing the Iller, eſtabliſhed his head-quarters at Wurſach on the 11th of March, the line of his advanced poſts extending from Lindau to Ulm, paſſing Ravenſburg and Biberach.

While in theſe poſitions, the two hoſtile armies were but a days march from each other, and guarded their poſitions with precaution and reſerve. This ſtate of obſervation related on both ſides to the important poſt of Feldkirch, which the Archduke was anxious to reinforce, and put out of the danger of attack, and which Jourdan, on the other hand, was as anxious to ſee reduced before he made any further advance. He was not unacquainted with the ſuperiority of the forces of the Archduke, whoſe army conſiſted of 66,000 men, while his own conſiſted of only 38,000. He had ſent frequent meſſages to Bernadotte, from his army of obſervation, and propoſed to him to join him on the left; but as Bernadotte had General Stzarry's army before him, theſe requiſitions were diſregarded.

The entrenchments of Feldkirch were at length attacked, on the 12th of March, by the French, with the greateſt impetuoſity; they threw a bridge under the fire of the Auſtrians, carried two entrenchments, renewed the attack ſix ſeveral times, but were repulſed with conſiderable loſs. Two days after they made new attempts, and were equally unſucceſsful.

After this defeat, the Archduke, confiding in the force of his defenſive line, which conſiſted of 18,000 men, and extending from Feldkirch to Lindau, in an oblique direction, covered his left, puſhed on his vanguard in the direction of Stockach. Jourdan, who waited for reinforcements, and who had not deſpaired of the ſucceſs of Maſſena's attacks upon Feldkirch, fell back on Engen, concentered his forces, called in whatever detachments were behind on his left, and feigned waiting,

waiting, in a more concentrated position, between Hohentwiel and Dullingen, the attack of the Auſtrian army.

A general action between the two hoſtile armies ſeemed inevitable; they obſerved and meaſured each other ſo near, that ſcarcely ſpace was left between them to manœuvre their advanced guards. Jourdan was unwilling not to avail himſelf of the advantage reſulting from the firſt attack, and, according to his plan, was confined to the general ſyſtem of the offenſive. He marched his vanguard on to Pfullendorf, where he formed his head-quarters on the 18th of March. His left, under Generals St. Cyr and Vandamme, was poſted on the left of the Danube. His centre occupied the ſpace between the right ſide of the river and Moſkirch, under the orders of Ferino, extended to the Lake of Conſtance, puſhing his advanced poſts as far as Merſburg and Buchal.

The arrangements made by the Archduke was in this manner; with his vanguard he took his poſitions on the heights of Sulgau and Altſchauſen, and fixed his head-quarters at Schawendorf. The main body was a ſhort day's mareh in the rear. This poſition was in ſight of that of the French. A valley, and the little river of Oſtrach, ſeparated the two armies. One of Jourdan's Adjutants preſented himſelf before the camp of the Auſtrian vanguard, to aſk if the diſpatches from the court of Vienna, expected by the directory, had arrived. On receiving an anſwer from the Prince in the negative, he proclaimed that the armiſtice was at an end.

A very briſk attack followed this military ceremony. The Auſtrian vanguard was forced back beyond Kloſterſuſſen, to a poſition where detachments from the main body came up to ſupport it.

After this firſt engagement, the French took an advantageous poſition on the heights of Oſtrach and Mengen. The Archduke, in his turn, made an attack on the enemy, with a deſign to diſlodge Jourdan from be-

fore Pfullendorf, formed his army into three columns; the right paſſed along the Danube near Mengen, the left took the road of Altſchauſen to Pfullendorf, the Prince headed the centre in perſon acroſs the marſhy valley of Oſtrach, on the road from Sulgau. Jourdan, after an obſtinate reſiſtance on the whole front of his line, unable to ſupport his left, which was already flanked, abandoned his poſition at Oſtrach, and retreated in good order, during the night, to the heights of Pfullendorf. But the march of the right column of the Auſtrian army did not permit him to keep his poſition, and the arrangements made by the Archduke the following day to ſurround the whole of Jourdan's left wing with ſuperior forces, determined him to retreat, during the night, to Stockach and Engen. The head of the French column which had advanced to Buchorn was cut off and made priſoners. Theſe two firſt engagements were bloody; both armies diſplayed a formidable artillery, and more numerous, in proportion to the troops by whom it was employed, than had ever been ſeen in any former wars. The Imperialiſts particularly had a light or horſe artillery, much ſtronger and better exerciſed than in the laſt campaigns, in which the French had brought theſe engines of deſtruction to a high degree of perfection, and employed them with the greateſt dexterity and ſucceſs.

Jourdan's firſt effort againſt the Archduke was evidently intended to draw him off from the Lake of Conſtance, in order to facilitate the project which he had combined with Maſſena, and attack in the front and rear the entrenchments of Feldkirch. It was to prevent the execution of this plan that General Hotze, at the inſtant of the firſt attack of Jourdan, left the defence of Feldkirch to the other Generals, and marched to Lindau with 10,000 men to oppoſe the movements of the right wing of Jourdan's army. Scarcely had Hotze left Feldkirch, than Maſſena took advantage of the diverſion made by Jourdan on the Danube, and renewed his attacks againſt that fortreſs. The batteries which

which commanded the left flank of this poſition were carried by the Auſtrian general, Jellachich, ſword in hand. However, the retrogade movement of Jourdan before the Archduke leaving Maſſena but one favourable moment before the return of Hotze, he attacked Feldkirch on ſeveral points with a conſiderable body of grenadiers united to the diviſion of General Oudinot. This laſt attack, led on by Maſſena himſelf, was repulſed by the Imperialiſts, but with conſiderable loſs on both ſides: the French general did not withdraw the ſurviving part of his troops, till he left the flower of the diviſion at the foot of the entrenchments. The corps of General Oudinot was of conſequence forced to recroſs the Rhine and take poſt at Rheineck, an important poſition at the entrance of the river into the Lake of Conſtance; and Hotze returned to his poſition at Feldkirch.

The Archduke did not ſuffer the recent advantage he had obtained to remain unimproved, but continued to preſs upon the army of Jourdan, who, having fallen back upon his ſtrong poſition beyond Stockach, ſecure of making good his retreat by Schaffhauſen and the defiles of the Black Mountains, was determined to make a laſt effort to draw off the Imperialiſts from the Lake of Conſtance, on which enterprize depended the ſucceſs, as has been obſerved, of the general plan of the campaign. He reſolved, therefore, to hazard another general engagement, in order to obtain that ſucceſs, which neither the rapidity of his marches, the advantage gained by Maſſena in the Griſons, nor the repeated attacks of this laſt General againſt Feldkirch, had hitherto been able to afford him.

Some trifling ſkirmiſhes between ſeveral ſmall detachments of the two armies had taken place, when Jourdan, on the 25th of March, attacked the advanced poſt of the Imperialiſts, who had marched from Pfullendorf, and taken their poſition before Stockach. The engagement commenced with the left wing, under General St. Cyr, which marched upon Tullingen, and attacked

attacked the right wing of the Imperialiſts, under General Meersfeld, with ſo much impetuoſity, that he forced the poſt, and compelled the Auſtrian wing to fall back in diſorder to a wood ſituated between Liptingen and Stockach, and a part of the ſame diviſion was driven back to Schawendorf on the road to Moſkirch.

The French had puſhed the right of the Auſtrians to the edge of the foreſt, and the main body of the Archduke's army was about to be flanked, when he drew off his forces from the left to attack the foreſt in poſſeſſion of the diviſion under St. Cyr. This engagement is repreſented, on both ſides, as one of the moſt obſtinate and bloody that had ever been remembered. The Archduke alighted from his horſe, and, on foot, charged with diſtinguiſhed valour at the head of his grenadiers. The Princes of Anhalt and Furſtemberg were killed as they were, with great reſolution, leading on their columns. It was not till after a moſt deſperate conteſt that the French were diſlodged from the wood. Till that moment, from five in the morning, when the action commenced, the advantage had been on the ſide of the French, and the failure of complete victory is attributed by Jourdan to the inexecution of a charge of cavalry, which he ordered to ſupport the attack of St Cyr. The corps of the French carbineers, headed by Jourdan, covered the retreat, but were overpowered by the Imperial grenadiers and infantry. St. Cyr finding it impoſſible to reſiſt this laſt and moſt terrible ſhock, fell back on Liptingen. Night only put an end to the carnage. Ten thouſand men, killed and wounded, remained on the field of battle. The French maintained their poſition at Engen during the night, but the next day Jourdan began his retreat upon Schaffhauſen with his right, while the left croſſed the Danube by the bridge of Tuttlingen, and retreated through Rothweil. The artillery and baggage re-paſſed the defiles of the Black Foreſt, and croſſed the Rhine at Baſil and Huninguen. General Vandamme covered the flank

flank of the army with his rearguard, and retreated to Obernorf. The Archduke fixed his head-quarters at Liptingen, ſending ſtrong detachments upon the rear of the French army, which took poſt at Hornberg.

Conſternation and diſmay, at Paris in conſequence of this terrible defeat of the army of the Danube pervaded all ranks of the citizens, and their indignation was principally pointed at the directory, who, in their turn, threw the blame on the incapacity of Jourdan.

The reſentment of the public was divided between the government and the General; the one for having entruſted ſo important a command of ſo great a proportion of the national force, on an inexperienced chief; and the other, for having accepted a poſt, with which his talents and abilities were incommenſurate. Public reſentment did not long continue ſo divided; when the plan of the campaign, and the means of execution, which had been propoſed by General Jourdan, on his acceptance of the command of the army of the Rhine, became publicly known. It appears from that commander's papers, that the plan which he ſketched, and which has ſince met the approbation of military men of the firſt ability, was laid before the directory, and the means of execution which he pointed out, conſiſting of four armies, of 40,000 men for the Tyrol, 80,000 men for the Danube, 40,000 men for an army of obſervation on the Rhine, and of 20,000 in Switzerland, were promiſed him. The legiſlative body having voted a levy of 200,000 conſcripts, and funds for an army of 400,000 men, Jourdan thought himſelf warranted, in placing the army under his command at 180,000, leaving 140,000, for the army of Italy, and the remainder 80,000 for the different ſervice of the interior.

When Jourdan took poſſeſſion of the command of the army on the Rhine, in the month of November, he found but 47,000 men complete on the whole line from

from Duſſeldorf to Huninguen, the places diſtitute of proviſion, and the army without magazines. He had been promiſed 6 000 cavalry, and he on his arrival, found only the trifling number of 800; every department of the ſervice was in the ſame ſtate, and the only thing aſſured was the pay of the troops, which was levied on the conquered countries on the Rhine. He made his report to the directory on the diſtreſſed ſtate of the army, and propoſed an eaſy mode of remedying it, by permitting the inhabitants to pay the remainder of the contributions in kind, as the grain, the moſt material, and of which the exportation was prohibited, abounded in theſe provinces, and money was ſcarce, ariſing from this prohibition. This propoſal was rejected, becauſe, in every bargain made with the contractors, certain gratuities were given to the miniſter, who would have loſt that part of his benefits, had the eaſy mode propoſed by the General, been adopted. This nefarious practice had often encreaſed the profits of the miniſter and his agents to the great detriment of the army; in the preſent caſe, true to their ſyſtem, the army remained without magazines, and the frontier towns unproviſioned.

Strong repreſentations, both to the miniſter of war, and to the directory, were inceſſantly made, by Jourdan; while to ſoothe him, he received the moſt ſolemn aſſurances of effective ſupport; who, nevertheleſs, at the end of December, when the march of the Ruſſians was univerſally allowed, and known to all Europe, when three months before, he had received from the miniſter of foreign affairs, and who had procured the intelligence, the plan of the combined attack of the Auſtrians and Ruſſians, the miniſter of war obſerved to Jourdan in his letter, that it was not probable that the Auſtrians would make an attack. An interchange of remonſtrances on the one part, and of promiſes on the other, continued to the end of January, when Jourdan received inſtructions from the miniſter of war, with the plan of the campaign, which appeared to be the counter-

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part of that given in by himſelf three months before, and which preſented an army, *on paper*, of 150,000 men. The forces already under the command of Jourdan bore ſo little reſemblance to the ſtatement in the plan, that he ſent, in the beginning of February, an Adjutant-general to Paris, to make freſh remonſtrances, and offer his diſmiſſion. Theſe remonſtrances produced no other effect than a complimentary letter from the directory, and an aſſurance from the miniſter of war that further reinforcements ſhould be ſent from the interior as ſoon as the criſis of the approaching elections was over.

The French general at length, on the 20th of February, received the arret of the directory, ordering him to croſs the Rhine, and penetrate into Germany. In obeying this mandate, he, on the 2d of March, wrote to the directory, ſtating that the army under his command, both on the Danube and in Switzerland, did not amount to more than 66,000 men, at the ſame time he informed them, that the combined army which he had to oppoſe, amounted to nearly 150,000 men; and after ſtating the dangers which muſt neceſſarily ariſe from ſuch a diſproportion of numbers, obſerved, that it would be more eaſy to find a glorious death from ſuch an unequal conteſt, than to reap any laurels. The coalelced forces, however, did not act on the Danube; the Ruſſians, amounting to 25,000 men, marched towards Italy, and large detachments were ſent into the Tyrol; ſo that the ſuperiority of the Archduke's army conſiſted of about only from thirty to 40,000 men. The laſt anſwer given by the miniſter to theſe remonſtrances was contained in a letter, which as Jourdan was circumſtanced, could be conſidered as nothing more than banter and irony. The miniſter allowed at length that the diſproportion between the forces under Jourdan and thoſe of the Archduke might occaſion diſquietude in ſome circumſtances, but that ſuperiority of numbers could never terrify an army commanded by Jourdan; and hinted at national vengeance,

geance, to be exerciſed againſt perfidious governments, the inflamed ardour of troops led on by the conqueror of Fluerus, inſpiring a well-founded ſecurity, with other inſulting gaſconade of the ſame import. But, in ſhort, none of the engagements made in that, or preceding letters, were realized. Inſtead of 150,000 men, which had been promiſed, and of which the public were aſſured, Jourdan began the campaign with the number already ſtated, and we have ſeen the bloody iſſue which attended ſuch treachery by the executive power.

The detachments from the diviſion under Maſſena into the mountains of the Tyrol, towards the ſources of the Inn and the Adige, had rendered themſelves maſters of this key both of Italy and of Germany; the poſſeſſion of which was of ſo much importance to the ſucceſs of the firſt operations of the French army in Italy. Caſa Bianca, who had entered the Upper Engadin on the 13th of March, wiſhing to ſecure his right flank before he penetrated further into the mountains, marched part of his diviſion upon Bormio, and on the 16th attacked the diviſion under General Laudohn, which he forced to retreat into the Wintſchgau, to which place General Bellegarde, in order to ſupport him, marched a part of his corps-de-reſerve. The diviſion under General Lecourbe having alſo entered the Engadin, the French attacked the poſts of Martinſbruch, Tunſterminz, and Nauders but without ſucceſs.

The frontier of the Tyrol was ſtill uninvaded; General Laudohn occupied the Munſterthal with a body of about 5,000 men, having taken poſt at Tauffers, guarded the defiles towards the Engadin and the Valteline, and covering the entrance of the valley of the Adige, called Venoſta.

General Lecourbe having received reinforcements, combined a formal attack againſt all theſe poſts. He marched with his diviſion upon Martinſbruch and Nauders, and directed the columns commanded by the Generals Deſolles and Loiſon upon the Munſterthal. In order to reach this valley, the French, under Deſolles, ſurmounted

ſurmounted difficulties and dangers which, it is aſſerted, would have arreſted the moſt intrepid guides of the glaciers.

Nothwithſtanding the ices and ſnows, they climbed one of the higheſt mountains of the Julian Alps, the Wormſer-Joch, which ſeparates the ſources of the Adda and the Adige, and, by this manœuvre, turned the entrenched defiles which the Auſtrians kept in the moſt complete ſecurity, never dreaming of the paſſage of an army by a glacier hitherto deemed inacceſſible. The French having reached the loftieſt peaks, ſlid, or rather rolled down with their arms into the valley, from a prodigious height. Rallying ſuch of his troops as had been able to free thoſe abyſſes, Deſolles ſurpriſed and attacked Glurentz, and the poſt of Tauffers, which General Laudohn had entrenched. The Auſtrians made conſiderable reſiſtance, but at length were compelled to ſurrender. All means of retreat were cut off from Laudohn; for, during this bold and daring attack, General Loiſeau had alſo penetrated on another ſide and flanked Nauders, while Lecourbe forced the poſt and paſſage of Martinſbruch. Troops, cannon, and baggage were all taken. Laudohn, with a ſmall number of infantry, and a few cavalry, broke through the chain of the French above Glurentz, and retreated into the valley of Venoſta, where he met General Bellegarde, who was marching to diſengage him; but finding this aſſiſtance ineffectual, the two Generals retreated ſtill further to cover Botzen, and preſs the levy of the Tyrolian militia. The French advanced as far as the poſt of Schluderns, and were maſters of the head of the two great vallies of the Tyrol. The part of the general plan of the campaign which had been allotted to theſe diviſions had been executed with equal addreſs and courage, and in poſſeſſion of theſe important poſts, they might eaſily have believed they had obtained a victory, the moſt difficult, as well as the moſt important, for the ſubſequent operations of their armies on both ſides the Alps.

The campaign of Italy had not yet opened, when, by the defeat of General Jourdan, and his retreat, that on the Danube was closed, and whose army had been the victim of the incapacity and corruption of the directory, and chiefly the minister of war; they, of consequence, became daily more and more the objects of general detestation, and their venality was so notorious, a thing so open and undisguised, particularly that of the war minister, that, though powerfully patronized by Rewbell (who was a sharer in the common spoil) the public indignation rose to such a height, that the directory were compelled to dismiss him from a post which he so infamously filled. His dismissal was hailed as a favourable omen by the French, who imagined that victory, under other auspices, would again revisit their standards; for though at that period no idea was entertained of the extent of the atrocity of his ministerial conduct respecting the army of the Rhine, yet the conviction of his incapacity and corruption was such, that almost every individual felt interested in hearing that he was no longer to preside over the military operations of the republic.

At this period, the whole chain of the Alps to the Tyrolian mountains, from the frontiers of Venice to Sicily, was in the possession of the French. Of consequence, from Italy such resources might have been drawn, as would not only have easily barred the passage to the coalesced powers, but have carried the theatre of war once more into the heart of Germany. Piedmont, Tuscany, and Naples, into which the revolutionary spirit, whose irresistible force had already broken the coalition of Europe against France, was now introduced, might have produced still greater effects, aided by the discipline and courage of the French troops, and under the command of an able, and above all, an honest and disinterested leader. The directory having betrayed the Roman republic, and just driven the ambassadors of that of Naples with ignominy from Paris, in open defiance of public opinion, and regardless of general

general indignation, conferred the command of Italy on the ex-miniſter of war, the infamous and deteſted Scherrer.

While the army, lately commanded by Jourdan, now united with that under Maſſena, was conſtrained to abandon the offenſive plan of operation, took the left ſide of the Rhine, from the Griſons, along its courſe, to the extent of the French territory, as a line of defence (the moſt formidable both by nature and art that could be offered), the French army were endeavouring to diſlodge the Imperialiſts from their ſtrong poſition on the Lower Adige, and to puſh them back to the Brenta. The Ruſſians had not yet entered Italy, and in order to execute this operation before their arrival, the French redoubled their exertions in hopes of gaining this advantage, notwithſtanding the command of Scherrer, whoſe preſence occaſioned as much diſcontent and indignation, both in the Ciſalpine republic, and at the army, as his adminiſtration excited at Paris. He had aſſembled the troops on the frontier of the Ciſalpine republic, behind Peſchiera and Mantua, while the Auſtrian army formed itſelf, under the orders of General Kray, along the left ſide of the Adige, behind Verona and Porto Legnano. The whole of the Auſtrian line, between the Lake of Garda and the Adige, was, on the 26th of March, attacked by ſix diviſions, one of which menaced Porto Legnano, which flanked the left of the Auſtrian army, while two others marched upon Verona, and three whole diviſions attempted to force and turn the poſts on the right of the Auſtrian line, the chain of which extended to Bardolino, on the Lake of Garda, and covered the entrance of the valley between Rivoli and la Chiuſa. The object of this movement was to take Verona on the left ſide of the Adige in the rear, while it was attacked in front on the right, in hopes of forcing the Imperialiſts to abandon the place.

This plan, concerted by Moreau, who led on the three diviſions under the reſpective commands of Generals

rals Delmas, Serrurier, and Grenier, was crowned with the moſt complete ſucceſs: they carried the redoubts and entrenchments, took poſſeſſion of Rivoli, paſſed the Adige, and advancing as far as Chiuſa, cut the line of the Auſtrian troops, part of which, after great loſs, retreated into the valleys as far as Peri.

The two diviſions of the centre of the French army, under the immediate command of Scherrer, attacked the out-poſts of Verona, under the command of General de Reitzen. The poſts of St. Lucie and St. Maximin, under the command of General Kaim, taken and re-taken ſeven times, remained definitively in the poſſeſſion of the Auſtrians. The chain of the advanced poſts of the Auſtrians was preſerved, with the exception of St. Lucie, of which the French kept poſſeſſion. The attack on Porto Legnago, where a French general was killed, alſo failed, and the diviſion was forced to fall back on Mantua.

Scherrer quitted the field of battle the following day, after making a few uſeleſs efforts; and the diviſions under General Moreau were compelled to repaſs the Adige and retreat to Peſchiera, in order to avoid being cut off. The gallant Moreau with deep and painful regret was compelled to take this retrogade movement. His remonſtrances with Scherer to induce him to keep his poſition before Verona, and give him time to make an attack on the rear, had no effect with that ignorant commander. General Kray had marched conſiderable forces to his left; but, perceiving that the principal force of the French was directed againſt the centre and right of his line, he led them back again to Verona, preſuming that the French would not fail to renew their attacks on that quarter. The troops, however, remained on the field of battle, when, three days after the firſt attack, a ſuſpenſion of arms took place, to afford time to bury the dead. The next day Scherrer attacked, with his left, the whole chain of the poſts of the Auſtrian army, and having diſlodged General Kaim from his poſition before Verona, threw bridges over the

the Adige, and detached the diviſion of General Serrurier to the left ſide, who drove back the advanced poſts of the Auſtrians to within half a league of Verona; one of his columns had even gained the heights which covered their right flank, together with the road of Vicenza, and the camp of the army.

To repel this attack, General Kray detached through the city the diviſion of Marſhal Frolich, who had repulſed the French at Porto Legnano. This diviſion attacked the French a-freſh with equal ſucceſs, and forced them, after an obſtinate reſiſtance, to retreat to their bridges. This retreat was ſo precipitate, and the purſuit ſo briſk, that a part only of the French columns had time to paſs the Adige, the bridges having been broken either by the French themſelves, or deſtroyed by pontooners diſpatched in the rear of the French by General Kray, and ſupported by a detachment. The retreat of almoſt a whole French column was thereby cut off, part of which ſurrendered priſoners, and the reſt made vain attempts to eſcape by the mountains. The loſs of the French on that day, was eſtimated at about 7,000 men.

General Scherrer being thus defeated in all his various enterpriſes, drew off, on the 1ſt of April, his left from the Lake of Garda, after throwing a ſtrong garriſon into Peſchiera, and concentered his forces below Villa Franca, between the Adige and the Tartaro. This poſition, which covered Mantua, was not purely defenſive, but threatened the paſſage of the Adige between Verona and Porto Legnano. The right diviſion of the French army was encamped before this laſt place; the reſt of the army occupied the camp of Magnan, and the head-quarters were at Iſola della Scala. Mean while, the Auſtrian army paſſed the Adige, occupied Caſtel Nuovo, maſked Peſchiera, and preſſed upon the left of the French army.

To prevent having his left flank turned, Scherrer determined to attack the Auſtrians, on the 5th of April, on every point, with three ſtrong columns. That on the

the right, compoſed of the two diviſions of the Generals Victor and Grenier, was directed upon San Giacomo, below Verona. The diviſion of the vanguard, under Delmas, marched upon Doſſobono, covering the principal attacks of the columns of the centre, formed by the diviſions of the Generals Hatry and Mont Richard, under the command of Moreau. Serrurier's diviſion formed the left of the column, which was to attack Villa Franca.

While theſe diſpoſitions were forming, General Kray, who had received reinforcements the evening before, and ſuſpecting, from an order diſpatched from Peſchiera which had fallen into his hands, that Scherrer was going to make another attempt to paſs the Adige, immediately took meaſures to prevent him. He accordingly marched againſt the French with the ſame plan of attack, having formed three ſtrong columns, under the orders of Generals Mercandin, Kaim, and Zoph. A deſperate engagement enſued, which was long and bloody. Moreau pierced through the centre, and fought under the walls of Verona. Every point of the line on which the columns met was diſputed with great obſtinacy. Villa Franca, attacked by Serrurier, alternately in poſſeſſion of both parties, at the cloſe of the day, remained in the power of the French. At length the left column of the Auſtrian army, commanded by General Zoph, having ſucceeded in flanking the two diviſions of the right of the French army, forced them to retreat, and decided the victory, which till then had continued doubtful.

The two armies, weary with mutual ſlaughter, remained on the field of battle, ſtrewed with the dying and the dead. Scherrer evacuating, at the ſame time, Iſola della Scala, and Villa Franca, retreated by Roverbello, where he halted next day. While the French army paſſed the Mincio at Goita, Kray detached a vanguard, followed by the two diviſions of Generals Zoph and Kaim, and completed the blockade of Peſchiera. That of Mantua, on the eaſtern ſide, the taking

ing of the important poſt of Governolo, by General Klenau, and the interruption of the communication with Ferrara, were, on the ſide of the Po, the immediate conſequences of the battle of Magnan. The Auſtrians endeavoured to purſue their advantages on the extreme frontier, between the Tyrol and the provinces of Bergamo and Breſcia, in which they determined to flank the general poſition of the French army, and force it to take the defenſive line between the Oglio and the Adda, in order to cover the Milaneſe; but, while Scherrer kept on the defenſive, theſe operations were premature and uſeleſs. The whole chain of the French or Ciſalpine poſts, from Bormio to the Lakes of Idro and Garda, were attacked on the 8th of April, and retreated on Breſcia, after having evacuated the entrenchments of St. Anthony, and the little fortreſs of Rocca di Anſo, ſituated on the weſtern ſide of the Lake of Idro.

Such, in the northern parts of Italy, were the reſpective poſitions of the French and Auſtrian armies at the moment of the arrival of the firſt Ruſſian columns. Deſolles and Lecourbe, the French generals, had, at this poriod, abandoned the poſitions which they held in the Tyrol, at the head of the valleys, on both ſides of the chain of mountains which divides the ſources of the Inn from thoſe of the Adige.

It muſt be remembered with what prodigious efforts they had penetrated to thoſe regions, and with what ſucceſs they maintained the poſts their courage and perſeverance had gained. The junction of Generals Laudohn and Bellegarde, after the defeat of the diviſion which the former commanded at Glurentz; their activity in aſſembling forces in the Wintſchgau, and the alarm ſpread through the Tyrol, covered every communication between Switzerland and Italy, and were enabled by following the courſe of the rivers, by the valley of the Inn and that of the Adige, to facilitate the operations on either ſide, and penetrate in a greater or leſſer degree into the Tyrol, according to the greater

greater or leſs rapid progreſs of their armies of the Danube, and of Italy. But thoſe advantages related purely to a plan of offenſive war; ſince Maſſena had given up his attacks upon Feldkirch, and the turning of the Lake of Conſtance; and ſince the retreat of Jourdan had rendered that object of no further conſequence.

Lecourbe, therefore, withdrew into the Engadin, after burning the bridge of Finſtermunz. The diviſion of General Deſolles fell back upon Munſter, and entrenched itſelf in the defiles, where it was attacked by General Bellegarde; and, after an obſtinate reſiſtance in its entrenchments at Tauffers and Munſter, and a ſharp engagement, in which he ſuffered much, was obliged to retreat to Zernez, from whence, after another attack by Bellegarde, he fell back into the Upper Engaden.

The French, unable to maintain themſelves near Mantua, continued their retreat, and paſſed the Chiuſa at Aſola. As the republican troops withdrew, the Auſtrians completed the blockade of this place; and General Klenau, aſcending the Po with his armed boats, took poſſeſſion of the poſts, from which the garriſon drew its ſupplies, and cut off the communications with Ferrara and Modena. Ponte Molino, Governoſo, and ſeveral other poſts, were carried almoſt by ſurpriſe, on account of the precipitate retreat of the French army. At Lagoſcuro, Klenau took thirty-two boats loaded with 200 pieces of artillery deſtined to form batteries on the banks of the Po; and ſome days after, an equipage of pontoons fell into his hands. The right of the Auſtrian army advanced alſo beyond the Lake of Garda; the French fleet of armed boats from Riva, to take refuge under the cannon of Peſchiera, which, left to its own reſources, was bombarded and ſuſtained a regular ſiege. General Vukaſſowich had been detached from the Tyrol by Bellegarde, to form a junction with the right of the Auſtrian army, and had penetrated into the province of Breſcia; but as Lecourbe had

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ſent reinforcements from the Valteline to this latter city, he was obliged to poſtpone his attack.

The French army mean while continued its retreat by its right beyond the Oglio, and by its left beyond the Chiuſa. General Kray, who had already marched his vanguard to Goito, paſſed the Mincio with his main army, and puſhed his advanced poſts as far as theſe two rivers, having been joined by General Melas, who was to have taken the command of the army, but who left it in the hands of Kray, till the arrival of General Suwarrow. This commander reached Verona on the 13th of April, with the firſt vanguard of the Ruſſian army, and, preſſing the march of his columns, joined the Auſtrian army, the command of which was immediately aſſigned him.

The French army fell back behind the Adda. Cremona was evacuated; a body of the rearguard remained on the left bank of the Adda. The French headquarters were, on the 17th of April, at Lodi, a place whoſe remembrance will long live in hiſtory, from the memorable victory obtained in this ſpot by Bonaparte. It was at this period that Scherrer, covered with confuſion and diſgrace, after having cauſed the ruin of the army of the Danube as miniſter, and that of Italy as commander, was compelled to abandon a poſt which he was ſo unworthy of filling. The command of this army, diminiſhed to one half of its numbers, was given to Moreau.

Againſt ſuch hoſts of foes it was in vain to contend. Situated as Moreau now was, retreat was equal to a victory. The Auſtrians and Ruſſians had now joined their forces. All the frontier places of the Ciſalpine republic were left to their own reſources. Peſchiera aſked in vain for capitulation. A ſally of the garriſon of Mantua had been vigorouſly repulſed. The caſtle of Ferrara, defended by French and Ciſalpine troops, ſtill held out. The garriſon of Breſcia, after a brave reſiſtance, ſurrendered priſoners of war. An action, which took place on the 20th of April, under Cremona, be-

tween the rear-guard of the French and the diviſion under Kaim, forced the remainder of the right of the French army to paſs the Adda, and the advanced guard of the centre of the Auſtrian army advanced within view of Lodi. The head-quarters of the French were now removed to Milan; the army entrenched itſelf on the Adda, and broke down all the bridges. Preſſed by forces, victorious and greatly ſuperior in numbers, Moreau haſtened the arrival of ſuccours which he expected from different points. Deſolles, who had evacuated the Munſterthal, was detached from the army of Maſſena, and made forced marches to join the left of Moreau on the other ſide. The diviſion which occupied Tuſcany was called in to ſupport the right, and Moreau waited impatiently for ſuch reinforcements by Piedmont as the ſouth of France could furniſh, all which were directed towards the ſupport of the army of Italy.

The Archduke Charles, who had remained indiſpoſed at Stockach undertook nothing important for ſome time after the retreat of the army of the Danube, commanded by Jourdan. The empire was now alſo ſeriouſly engaged in the war. The diet of Ratiſbon had on the 21ſt of March decided, that as no requiſition had been made reſpecting the march of the Ruſſian troops acroſs the territory of the empire, and no legal notice had been received on that ſubject, that the diet ought in conſequence to wait with confidence that the Emperor would take the moſt convenient meaſures to maintain tranquillity and accelerate peace.

This illuſory deciſion was notified more deſtinctly a few days after to the French miniſters by Count Metternich, who informed them, that, notwithſtanding the pacific proteſtations of the French government, the war had actually taken place, without any declaration of the rupture of the armiſtice preſcribed by preceding treaties with the empire; that from thoſe circumſtances, not only was an interruption to the reſpective correſpondences of the members of the congreſs to be apprehend-

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ed, but that the place of its meeting might become dangerous from the events of war, though ſuch place ought to be held inviolable. He added, that from thoſe conſiderations he had juſt received a formal order from the Emperor, in his quality of chief of the empire, to take no part in the negociations for peace, ſince the circumſtances and relations under which the congreſs had aſſembled, were totally changed; conſequently that he ſhould leave the place of the congreſs, and inform the French miniſters of the diſpoſitions of his Imperial Majeſty.

The French miniſters notified to the deputation of the empire, on the 26th of April, that they ſhould depart in three days, for the reaſons which had been alledged, reſpecting the inſecurity of continuing for a longer time the congreſs at Radſtadt.

The French miniſters haſtened their departure, eſpecially ſince the term which they had fixed expired with the 29th of April inſtant, and ſince by waiting till the next day, they would have exceeded the period fixed for that purpoſe. At eight in the evening they were in their carriages; but, on coming to the gate of the town, they were ſurpriſed to find the paſſage refuſed them. Neither the declaration that they were the French miniſters, nor the interpoſition of the Major of the place, was of any avail; it was neceſſary to ſend to the commander, who lodged at the extremity of the town.

The anſwer not being ſatisfactory, another meſſage was ſent, and at length permiſſion was obtained to leave the town, with two huſſars for an eſcort. The gate being opened, the miniſters began their route, but the two huſſars remained in the town. It was then nine in the evening.

At about 500 paces from the gate, a troop of huſſars of Szeckler, on horſeback as well as on foot, burſt out from a wood, that ſkirted the road, and ſurrounded the firſt carriage, in which was Jean Debry, his wife and children. Thinking it was ſome patrole to viſit his paſſport,

paſſport, he held it out of the window of his carriage, and mentioned his name and quality. You are Jean Debry the miniſter, was the reply, and immediately he was dragged out of his carriage, and fell covered with blood from ſtrokes of ſabres which he received on his arms, head, and ſhoulders. The huſſars, thinking him dead, proceeded to pillage the carriage; but Jean Debry had ſufficient ſtrength left to crawl unobſerved into the ditch, when the huſſars returning an inſtant after to ſee if he was really dead, raiſed up his arm, which he had preſence enough of mind to let fall without ſenſation, on which they exclaimed, "Oh! for him, he is dead enough!"

In the ſecond carriage were the ſecretary of the deputation, and the valet-de-chambre of the miniſter, who cried out, they were only domeſtics. They were ordered to alight, their carriage was pillaged, they received a few blows, but no other harm was done them.

In the third carriage was Bonnier alone. They aſked, in French, if he was the miniſter Bonnier. On his anſwering in the affirmative, the huſſars opened the door of the carriage, took him by the collar, dragged him out of the carriage, and cut off his hand, his head, and arms, and, in ſhort, diſmembered him. His carriage was likewiſe pillaged.

The ſecretary of legation, Roſenſtiel, was in the fourth carriage, who ſeeing, by the light of a ſingle flambeau, what was paſſing, had addreſs to ſave himſelf by jumping out of the carriage into the ditch, and got clear off. They found, however, in the carriage a great portmanteau, which they cut open, and ſcattered its contents on the ground. But this blunder was ſpeedily rectified. The papers were carefully gathered up, and carried to the Auſtrian commander at Radſtadt.

In the fifth carriage were the miniſter Robertjot and his wife. The huſſars had ſome ſtruggle with the miniſter to get him out of the carriage, his wife holding him ſtrongly locked in her arms. They murdered him

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in this poſition, cutting off the back part of his head with a ſabre, which a huſſar, as a trophy, put with the brain into his pocket. The carriage was alſo pillaged.

The huſſars immediately rode off after having achieved their bloody commiſſion. The carriages with the ladies and ſervants turned round and returned to Radſtadt, into which they entered freely, without having the preceding order of ſuffering none to go out or in objected to them. The ſecretary, Roſenſteil, having eſcaped acroſs the meadows, and after having wandered about for ſome time, diſcovered where he was, by the light of a torch, which a paſſenger was carrying on the cauſeway, when he climbed a wall, and gained a narrow path which brought him into Radſtadt at eleven the ſame evening.

The miniſter Debry having crawled into the wood, had bound up his wounds in the beſt manner he could, the cold of the evening having congealed the blood flowing from his wounds, and ſo ſtopped its effuſion, which otherwiſe would, in all probability, proved fatal. Debry continued in this afflicting ſituation till day-break, when he ventured out, and got unobſerved into the town.

If the ſimple narration of the circumſtances of this extraordinary event be ſufficient to awaken feelings of indignation and horror againſt the authors and inſtruments of acts of barbarity ſo black, ſo atrocious, and almoſt unexampled, it may well be imagined what were the impreſſions and ſentiments of the remainder of the French deputation at the ſight of thoſe relicts, ſprinkled with the blood of their aſſaſſinated huſbands and fathers; and when the mutilated ſurviving miniſter, Debry, diſplayed in his wounds ſo ſtrange a verſion of the Imperial code of the rights of nations. All the legations were alarmed and ſtruck with horror, particularly the Pruſſian, who immediately wrote a letter to Barbaczy, expreſſed in terms which marked their indignation in a very impreſſive manner, and obſerved, that

that in conſequence of this violation of the laws of nations, of ſo ſhocking and horrid a nature, they demanded an eſcort and ſafeguard more ſure for what ſtill ſurvived of the French legation.

The commander, in anſwer to thoſe indignant repreſentations, expreſſed himſelf ſorry at what had paſſed, and promiſed to detect and puniſh the authors. It had been repreſented, however, as "improbable that this unexampled crime could have been committed without his knowledge; and that huſſars of his regiment ſhould have preſumed to murder and plunder perſons of that diſtinction, reſpected by all civilized nations; without an expreſs order. Such ruffians (it was urged) at leaſt had they acted under no command, would have been leſs diſcriminate and ſcrupulous in their deeds; the miniſters would not have been the only perſons ſacrificed; nor would their attention have been particularly fixed on the box containing the papers of the legation. But what ſeemed to leave no doubt reſpecting the immediate authors of the crime, was the conveyance of all the effects which were pillaged to the Auſtrian commander of the poſt of Radſtadt, who would not have received them, had not the murder been committed in conſequence of ſuperior orders." Part of thoſe effects were given back by the commander of the poſt, at his houſe, to Robertjot's domeſtic, who went to claim them. The domeſtic obtained, among other things, a ſack containing 100 louis in gold, and ſeveral gold ſnuff-boxes, and ſaw the remaining part of the effects of his maſter, which had been pillaged, lying in the commandant's room. The papers of the legation were likewiſe claimed; but theſe the ſame officer refuſed to deliver up; alledging, that he was obliged to ſend them to the head-quarters.

Various, and even contradictory, were the conjectures reſpecting the real authors of this horrid outrage. Among others, it has been repreſented that Barbaczy was but the tool of this abominable crime; and that he was only commiſſioned to prepare the means, and enſure

ſure its ſucceſs: in proof of this charge, it is alledged, that when the directorial miniſter of Mayence complained of various inſults and violations, preparatory to this laſt event offered by the Auſtrian troops to the French miniſters and members of the deputation, during the laſt days of the congreſs, Barbaczy did not undertake to give an anſwer himſelf, but ſent the letter to the commander of Freudenſtadt, who, in his turn, waited the orders of a ſuperior; from whence it is concluded, that Barbaczy was the ſubaltern accomplice of a conſpiracy, of which the firſt indications were the violations already complained of, and of which the developement was the laſt horrible cataſtrophe.

The Pruſſian miniſter having obtained a grant of an eſcort, ſeveral miniſters of the empire, deeply affected with the barbarous deed, and thinking that thereby their national honour was irreparably injured, wiſhed to accompany the remainder of the French legation at its departure; but, what was extraordinary, and which ſtamped the ſuſpicion with certainty, was, that the Auſtrians would not permit theſe gentlemen to pay them this mark of reſpect. Jean Debry, and the ſurvivors, left Radſtadt the following day, under an Auſtrian eſcort, attended by an eſcort ſtill ſtronger, of the Prince of Baden, accompanied by the Ligurian miniſter, who had followed them on the night of the maſſacre, but who, providentially obſerving what was paſſing in front, eſcaped back to Radſtadt, leaving his carriage on the road, which was alſo pillaged like thoſe of the French miniſters.

Barbaczy and Bourkhardt, the almoſt proven inſtruments of this aſſaſſination, were arreſted by order of Prince Charles, to undergo a trial by a court-martial; but, as it was afterwards declared that thoſe who had committed theſe murders were not Auſtrians, but French emigrants, headed by one Danican, this trial did not take place. Danican publiſhed a letter, denying the charge; but this denial was unneceſſary, ſince the poſtilions who drove the carriages of the French miniſters

miniſters had made their judicial depoſitions at Carlſruhe, that the aſſaſſins were actually Auſtrian huſſars.

Conjecture was exhauſted reſpecting the motives which could have urged the commiſſion of an act ſo horrible and atrocious. The violation of the perſons of ambaſſadors, by the Auſtrian government, had already taken place, during the preſent war, in the perſon of Semonville, who was arreſted on neutral territory, in his route to Conſtantinople; but though this act was contrary to the law of nations, the recent flagrant deed was ſtill a more deteſtable infraction of the laws of human nature. Some have ſtated this murder to have been the pledge given by the Auſtrian government to the coaleſced powers, for its adherence to the treaty, and its deep-rooted abhorrence of the French nation; ſince the crime was of ſo enormous a magnitude as to make a reconciliation between the court of Vienna and the French republic impoſſible: but what dependence on a power whoſe obligation to fidelity is eſtimated by the magnitude of its guilt? Others had ſuppoſed, "that certain treaties had been concluded, during the negociation between the court and the French directory, which the former having found its intereſt to violate, was unwilling to have had diſcovered; hence the murder of the contracting parties, and the ſeizure and detention of their papers." Yet had this really been the caſe, it is probable that the ſecret would have been communicated to the directory at the time of the pretended negociation; or, would not ſome account of ſuch tranſactions have pierced when every tie of ſecrecy was looſened? Myſtery ſtill hangs around this dark tranſaction, and we muſt yet wait for the unravelling. The diet of Ratiſbon, who undertook to inveſtigate the myſterious villainy to the bottom, after a long farcical examination, referred it to the Emperor; but the indifference with which the Imperial court viewed this nefarious piece of unavailing villainy, raiſed ſuſpicion in many a humane breaſt.

The

The French government, as we may naturally ſuppoſe, on hearing of the melancholy news, loſt all candour and forbearance; for, whoever were the aſſaſſins, or by whatever orders this nefarious act was committed, the court of Vienna was peremptorily charged with the murder by the directory, who ſent a meſſage to the councils, to give them official notice of the event. The councils adopted reſolutions, the principal of which were, "That this act ſhould be denounced in the name of the French nation to all good men, and to the government of every country, as commanded by the cabinet of Vienna, and executed by its troops on the 9th of Floreal, (April 29th) ſeventh year of French liberty, with its reliance on French courage to avenge it; that a funeral fete ſhould be celebrated in honour of the murdered deputies throughout the republic; that the government guilty of this aſſaſſination ſhould be conſigned to the vengeance of nations, and the execrations of poſterity!—That in the place of ſitting of every municipal adminiſtration, in tribunals, ſchools, and public eſtabliſhments, an inſcription ſhould be put up, ſtating, that the Auſtrian government had cauſed this aſſaſſination to be committed by its troops; that a banner ſhould be ſent to every army, by ſea or land, with an inſcription provocative of vengeance againſt the Auſtrians for this murder; which banners were to be carried at the head of each army, and that indemnities ſhould be given to the widows and children of the deceaſed miniſters."

Such was the tragical cataſtrophe with which this long and memorable diplomatical campaign was cloſed: and in which the French had been outwitted and worſted by the intrigues and duplicity of the Auſtrian cabinet.

This event excited a juſt and lively horror throughout France, and for a moment diverted the torrent of public indignation which was pouring down on the obnoxious members of the executive government. The elections of the renewed third of the legiſlative body

had cauſed a more than uſual fermentation throughout the republic, and particularly in the legiſlative body, as the parties both of the directory and the oppoſition, placed their hopes of future ſucceſs in the replacing that body with a third part new members. The reſult, however, of this political ſtruggle correſponded with the views and wiſhes of neither party. The body of the electors in the communes, preſſed by the contending factions, rejected, in general, the candidates of both; and, for the moſt part, named men inſignificant, or unknown, and who had never formed any political opinions, and were utter ſtrangers to the high duties of legiſlation.

But the great ſtruggle was the election of a new director. The lot of receſſion, or of going out of office, had fallen on Rewbell, the perſon among the body of directors who had been marked as the particular object of public deteſtation. Rewbell had neither perſonal nor moral qualities to counterbalance his political vices, the moſt glaring of which was a ſhameleſs rapacity, and corruption united to the moſt diſguſting and ſordid avarice; and he had arrived at the directorial honour without any claims for ſervices done to his country.

Hitherto the directory had influenced, except in the caſe of Barthelmy, all the elections of their colleagues. Many of theſe elections had been ſufficiently revolutionary. The preſent election became an object of ſingular importance at the moment; but the influence of the directory was exerciſed at this time, not ſo much for the nomination of any particular individual, as for the rejection of the perſon on whom the majority of the councils ſeemed to have fixed their views. This diſtinguiſhed character was the celebrated Abbe Sieyes, who then filled the important poſt of ambaſſador at the Pruſſian court, and who was ſuppoſed by his addreſs and perſeverance to have greatly contributed towards preventing that formidable and warlike power from joining the coalition, and to the keeping up a good underſtanding

derſtanding between that cabinet and the French republic. The firmneſs of Sieyes's character was well known; and it was no doubt with a view of making him an inſtrument in the ſubverſion of his colleagues, that the revolutionary party in the council joined themſelves to the independent members to carry this election againſt the influence of the directory. Sieyes obtained the relative majority in the council of five hundred, and was returned, as uſual, with nine others, to the council of elders, where directorial influence and corruption had met with ſevere oppoſition, and who immediately named him to the vacant place of director.

We take notice of the elevation of Sieyes, as the vaſt and important tranſactions which ſoon followed, greatly owed their exiſtence to his influence and exertions.

The obnoxious members of the preſent directory had painfully perceived that their power and influence, which had been ſenſibly declining for ſome time paſt, had now expired. They knew Sieyes to be too diſintereſted and dignified a character to fall in with their fordid and nefarious practices, or to ſhare in their crimes; and juſtly dreaded him as a formidable enemy, whom it was hopeleſs to ſubdue, and vain to expect to ſoften. The defeat of the armies, mean while, had ſhamed the council into inquiſitory exertion; and, on the report of a commiſſion appointed to examine the means of providing for the exigencies of the moment, it was unanimouſly agreed to ſend a meſſage to the directory to demand detailed accounts reſpecting the adminiſtration of the ex-miniſter of war, Scherrer. It was ſtated by the reporter of a commiſſion, that in the month of Vendemiair preceding, before the levy of the new conſcription, the miniſter had exacted pay for an army then on foot of 437,000 men, without comprehending the army of Egypt; and that of 68,000 cavalry, ſtated as complete, 40,000 were wanting! Addreſſes were alſo ſent up from departments bordering on Italy, particularly

larly from Grenoble, which accuſing this miniſter as the author of all the misfortunes and reverſes of the army, ſtating various acts of perſonal cowardice during his command on the Adige, and that the indignation of the public was ſo excited againſt him on his return into France, that he had ſupplicated the commander in that quarter to provide him with an eſcort for his perſonal ſafety.

While theſe convulſions were agitating in France, miſtruſt, deſpondency, and anxiety, univerſally pervaded all ranks of citizens at home, while the Auſtrian army was rapidly continuing its conqueſts in Italy, the fate of which appeared as decided by General Kray's important victory between the Adige and the Tartaro, almoſt under the walls of Verona. As the French, in covering their right by Mantua, had not been able to re-eſtabliſh their left, nor keep the beſt line of defence againſt forces nearly equal, they had no advantage but from the chance of a ſucceſsful engagement. Had they been aſſured of receiving from Switzerland and France ſufficient reinforcements to keep the field before the two Imperial armies, it was only at the foot of the Alps and Appenines that they could ſecure thoſe advantages of poſition where ſuperiority of numbers would find a counterbalance: as on the banks of the Danube, the left of the general line of operations, the battle gained by the Archduke at Stockach, and the retreat of General Jourdan, had put it out of the power of the French to act on the offenſive; ſo the battle loſt by Scherrer at Magnan, and the inſulating the places of Mantua and Peſchiera, deſtroyed on the right, the centre of the combined defenſive of Switzerland and Italy. Every retrogade march uncovered and weakened the right of the army of Maſſena. On the other ſide, this retreat of Moreau upon the Milaneſe, rendered that of Macdonald's army at Naples very dangerous and difficult; for Ferrara and Mantua being now inveſted, and the poſts on the Po abandoned or taken, all the roads by the duchy of Parma, with thoſe of Upper Tuſcany, and

and the communication with Genoa, could not fail of being intercepted.

The warlike republic of France, who had firſt taught this terrible ſecret to Europe, experienced, in their turn, that ſuperiority of number, rapidity of marches, multiplied combinations of attacks and ſkirmiſhes, deſtroy the importance of the ſtrongeſt fortified places. What was formerly termed war of ſiege, exiſted no longer; fortreſſes, conſidered as great and motionleſs military machines, no longer ſtopped the career of an army ſuperior in number, or diſconcerted their plans, unleſs ſuch fortreſſes were interchained, and had the ſame relation with each other, for the defence of a frontier, as baſtions in one and the ſame piece of fortification. The French army, which had ſuffered immenſe loſs in the bloody engagement on the Adige, was ſtill further diminiſhed by placing ſmall garriſons in a great number of poſts, none of which retarded, for a ſingle day, the movements and march of the Imperial armies. Whilſt all theſe cauſes, and the debilitating fatigue attending a precipitate retreat, for which nothing had been prepared, continued to weaken the French, the Imperialiſts, already victorious without auxiliaries, ſaw their means increaſing every day, not only by the arrival of the Ruſſians, but alſo by the arming of the Italians, and the diſpoſition of the people.

At the moment that Scherrer gave up to Moreau the command of an army behind the Adda, reduced, by defeats, hardſhips, and deſertions, to 36,000 men, in the midſt of Italy, without any ſupport, Suwarrow, with nearly a triple force, turned as it were with his wings all the lines of the French poſts on the left ſide of this river. But, though the brave Moreau could not hope to maintain himſelf long in the Milaneſe, or receive ſuch powerful aſſiſtance as would enable him to keep it; yet he was ſo ſituated that if he abandoned too ſoon the upper part of Italy, and the lakes which covered his left, he would not be able to receive the reinforcements that were coming to him from Switzerland;

land; and if he too long delayed drawing near the Appennines and the coaſt of Genoa, he would not be able to rally his right diviſion, which was to have evacuated Tuſcany, and ſtill leſs the army of Naples. The Imperial troops had already paſſed the Po; Pizzighetone was almoſt inveſted by the diviſion under General Kaim, and by that of General Hohenzollern, who was marching upon Piacenza. It appears, therefore, that Moreau's intention in entrenching himſelf on the Upper Adda was only to draw the attention of the principal forces of Suwarrow towards him, and thereby diſengage his right; and afterwards refuſing battle with his left wing, to make his retreat upon Aleſſandria more eaſy, and with greater ſafety.

The Auſtrian commander had marched the allied army from the Oglio to the Adda, not comprehending the diviſion of General Kray, employed in the ſieges of Mantua and Peſchiera, nor the detached bodies of Generals Kaim and Hohenzollern, who had marched towards Pizzighetone and Piacenza. On the 26th of April, Suwarrow, on his arrival, diſpoſed his army into three columns. The right, under General Roſenberg, with a vanguard of Ruſſian troops, under General Vukaſſovich, filed off to the Lake of Como, upon the poſt of Lecco. The column of the centre, compoſed of the diviſions of Ott and Zoph, marched upon Vaprio; the left column, under the orders of General Melas, encamped in ſight of Caſſano.

The poſt of Lecco was carried by two battalions of grenadiers. Vukaſſovich marched upon Brivio, re-eſtabliſhed the bridge which had been deſtroyed by the French, and took his poſitions on the oppoſite ſide of the Adda, during the night, at Trezzo, ſurpriſed the French, diſlodged them from their poſt, and purſued them within a ſhort diſtance of Milan.

Theſe manœuvres of the allied troops drew the attention of the French, and led General Moreau to reinforce his left. The diviſion of General Grenier marched upon Brivio, to ſupport that part of the diviſion of General

neral Serrurier which had been diſlodged from Trezzo. A dreadful engagement took place between the French troops which had rallied, and the diviſion of General Ott, which had already paſſed the bridge. The victory was ſtill doubtful; a part of General Victor's diviſion flanking the Imperialiſts on the ſide of Brivio, was preparing to ſurround their right, or drive them into the Adda, when Zoph's diviſion croſſed the bridge of Trezzo, and turned the ſcale in favour of the Imperialiſts. The village of Pozzo was taken; the French fell back on Vaprio, from which place they were alſo driven. This laſt movement took off all hope of aſſiſtance from General Serrurier, who found himſelf ſeparated from the diviſions which had attempted in vain to reach him; and he was completely ſurrounded by the Imperial troops which had paſſed at Lecco, by the Ruſſian vanguard, under Vukaſſovich, and the diviſion of Roſſenberg which had paſſed at Brivio. In this deſperate ſituation, for which he was indebted to his own negligence in not guarding the poſt at Trezzo, Serrurier defended himſelf with deſperate courage; nor did he ſurrender with the wrecks of his diviſion, till he had obtained liberty for the officers to return to France on their patrole, and the immediate exchange of his ſoldiers againſt whatever priſoners of the allied army might be made on that day. General Melas, who commanded the left column, marched upon Caſſano. He at firſt forced the entrenchments of Ritorto Canale, which he paſſed on a *pont volant (a flying bridge)* under the fire of the French. He then ſtormed the head of the bridge on the Adda with ſuch expedition, that he ſaved it from the fire, and made uſe of it to paſs his whole diviſion, which took poſt the ſame evening at Gorginzolo. The French army, the loſs of which was very conſiderable, made its retreat through Milan, during the night, and the allied armies entered it the following day (April 28th). Vukaſſovich puſhed his advanced guard as far as Como, and a body of Ruſſian troops paſſed through Milan the ſame day.

Milan

Milan, the capital of the Ciſalpine republic, was once more in the power of the Auſtrians; and the ſevereſt ſarcaſm on the French government was the indifference with which they ſaw their troops driven out, and their bittereſt enemies, the Auſtrians and Ruſſians, make their triumphant entrance. But this is no unuſual thing in human affairs. And it is to be remembered, that, in the Ciſalpine republic, the great maſs of the people of Milan hailed the arrival of the French as the birth-day of their freedom; but the French directory, like deſpots who had conquered and ſubjugated a people, rather than magiſtrates of a free nation who had executed a truſt, affected to fear that the exploſion of growing patriotiſm would become electrical and contagious; that this rapid flame would burn brighter among the inhabitants of Italy, which long gave laws to the world, and who were now labouring under the moſt debaſing deſpotiſm; that it would lead them to form a community of intereſts, and that a ſyſtem of policy would be introduced, ſo as to compoſe a formidable coalition of thoſe different nations, which France would be unable to retain as inſtruments obedient to its will. —But we turn from theſe mean and ſelfiſh plans of a weak and treacherous government to the more immediate ſubject of our hiſtory.

The army of the Archduke, cantoned on the left ſide of the Rhine, had as yet (May 1ſt) made no movement. Maſſena had received reinforcements, and the army employed in the defence of Switzerland was about 60,000 ſtrong, not including the Swiſs auxiliaries. The Archduke alſo was unwilling to undertake any operations till the progreſs of the allied army in Italy ſhould have matured his projects of attack on the Griſons, for which important and difficult expedition, the diviſion under General Hotze, amounting to about 20,000 men, was deſtined. This General concerted his movements with thoſe of General Bellegarde, in the Lower Engadin, who had continued to haraſs the poſts of Lecourbe. His principal deſign was to eſtabliſh a nearer com-

communication with the left of Hotze, to ſurpriſe ſome paſſage on the lofty mountains which ſeparate the waters of the Inn from thoſe of the Languard and the Albula, which two rivers flow through the valley of the Griſons, and precipitate themſelves into the Rhine above and below Coire.

It is impoſſible to deſcribe the difficulties of the country, the inclemency of the ſeaſon, and the active defence of the French troops under the command of General Lecourbe, all which rendered the partial attempts made by General Bellegarde fruitleſs and of no effect; and the attack combined with Hotze, and made (on the 1ſt of May) on every point of the line, had no better ſucceſs with reſpect to the general project, which was of penetrating into the Griſons. Lecourbe defeated the Auſtrian troops, under the command of the former, in the Lower Engadin, and repulſed them with conſiderable loſs, taking the Prince de Ligne, and part of his troops, priſoners; while the diviſion under Hotze, which had ſurpriſed General Menars in the Griſons, in his attempt on the fort of Lucienſteig, and had penetrated as far as Mayenfield, was attacked in flank by General Chabrand, and driven back, after loſing conſiderable numbers, among which the regiment of the Prince of Orange was entirely cut to pieces.

This firſt attempt of General Hotze to carry by main force the fort of Lucienſteig, the key of the Griſons, was concerted with the Griſons themſelves, and the inhabitants of the little cantons of Switzerland, 10,000 of whom took arms on a ſudden, and ſurpriſed the French poſts at Diſſentis and Ilantz with ſuch rapidity, that if the attacks of the preceding day had ſucceeded, and more union had exiſted between the inſurgents within, and the Auſtrians without, the retreat of the French, the diviſion of General Lecourbe, who then occupied the Upper Engadin, and the communications of St. Gothard, would have been infallibly cut off.

Diſſentis, in the high valley of the Hither Rhine, is the point of communication between the Griſons and the cantons of Glaris and Uri. A body of about 6,000 peaſants had poured down on the bridge of Rechenau, of which they took poſſeſſion.

Maſſena, who had not been able, by any diverſion, to divide the forces of the Archduke, haſtened to ſtrengthen his left, which had been conſiderably ſhaken in this laſt attack. He reinforced the poſt of Lucienſteig, and detached Menars againſt the armed Swiſs peaſantry. This latter General diſlodged them from Rechenau, and purſued them as far as Diſſentis, where he came up with the main body, which he diſperſed, after killing about 2,000. Maſſena, mean while, attacked the Swiſs of the little cantons on the ſide of the Lake at Schwitz, where they were forced to lay down their arms; and alſo at Altorf, where 4,000 men, having ſuſtained the charge with a few pieces of cannon, were cut in pieces or diſperſed. General Soult, who commanded this expedition, purſued the wreck of this army as far as the valley of Urſeren, in order to prevent them from getting poſſeſſion of the paſs of St. Gothard. But it was not ſufficient for the ſurety of the French army in Switzerland, to re-eſtabliſh its internal communications, ſince, after the paſſage of the Adda, the poſſeſſion of Como, and of the eaſtern ſide of the Lake, the Valteline was quite uncovered. The diviſion under General L'Oiſon retreated with difficulty, by Chiavenna, into the Griſons, leaving part of his artillery behind; and Lecourbe croſſed rapidly from the Lower Engadin to Bellinzona, forming, by this means, a ſupport for his ſecond line, by covering the paſſage of St. Gothard, and cutting off the communication between the little cantons and the Swiſs Italian baillages, whoſe inhabitants had riſen in inſurrection, and declared for the Imperialiſts.

A few days after Lecourbe took his poſition at Bellinzona, Maſſena transferred his head-quarters from St. Gall

Gall to Zurich, manœuvring with his left, ſending ſtrong columns over the Rhine, detaching a body of 4,000 men towards the Black Foreſt, in hopes of drawing off the attention of the Archduke; but the Auſtrian Prince was not deceived by theſe operations, and remained firm to his plan, which was to hazard nothing on the Rhine till he had poſſeſſion of the country of the Griſons.

In order to ſucceed, he ſent reinforcements to Feldkirch. Hotze had already combined a new plan of attack with Bellegarde, who, following up the French in their retreat from the Upper Engadin, had advanced to Lenz, where he was joined by a conſiderable body of armed Griſons. The Swiſs, by the ex-avoyer, Steiger, and united with the Auſtrians under their countryman, General Hotze, requeſted leave to form the vanguard of the column which ſhould be charged with the new attack on Lucienſteig, which, ſince it had fallen into the hands of the French, had been rendered almoſt impregnable.

This fort, which was placed in a very narrow defile, formed by perpendicular rocks, the peaks of which, on the eaſtern ſide, were joined to the ſteep heights which encloſe the valley, half a league in length, ſhut up by batteries, and cut by a draw-bridge, was the only point which ſtopped the Archduke. While he was meditating this ſecond attack, he received information at his head-quarters, at Stockach, of the march of a conſiderable body of Ruſſians, which had already reached Gallicia, and were deſtined to act on the Rhine. General Joſti had come to take the orders of the Archduke for the direction of the columns. This body made part of 40,000 men, furniſhed by the Emperor of Ruſſia as auxiliaries, in the pay of England, independently of the army of Italy. The total of the Ruſſian troops was eſtimated at 70,000 men, who were at that time aſſembled, or who were on their route to join the Auſtrian armies.

On

On this ſubject, his Imperial Majeſty publiſhed a manifeſto, announcing his reaſons for war againſt the French republic, as below in a note *.

The

* *Proviſional Treaty between his Majeſty the King of Great Britain, and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias. Done at St. Peterſburgh, the 18th of December, 1798.*

In the name of the moſt holy and indiviſible Trinity!

His Majeſty the King of Great Britain, and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, in conſequence of the alliance and friendſhip ſubſiſting between them, being deſirous of entering into a concert of meaſures, ſuch as may contribute in the moſt efficacious manner to oppoſe the ſucceſſes of the French arms, the extenſion of principles of anarchy, and to bring about a ſolid peace, together with the re-eſtabliſhment of the balance of Europe, have judged it worthy their moſt ſerious conſideration and earneſt ſolicitude to endeavour, if poſſible, to reduce France within its former limits, as they ſubſiſted before the revolution. They have, in conſequence, agreed to conclude a proviſional treaty; and for this purpoſe they have named as their plenipotentiaries, namely, the King of Great Britain, Sir Charles Whitworth, K. B. his envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary at the court of Ruſſia; and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, the chancellor Prince Beſborodko, a privy counſellor, director-general of the poſts, ſenator, and knight of the orders of St. Andrew, of St. Alexander Newſky, of St. Anne, and grand croſs of thoſe of St. John of Jeruſalem, and of St Vladamir, of the firſt claſs; the Sieur Kotſchoubey, vice-chancellor, &c. &c. who, after having reciprocally communicated their full powers, have concluded and agreed upon the following articles:

Article I. The two contracting powers, in the intention of inducing the King of Pruſſia to take an active part in the war againſt the common enemy, propoſe to employ all their endeavours to obtain that end. Immediately on his Pruſſian Majeſty's conſenting to this meaſure, his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias is ready to afford him a ſuccour of land forces of 45,000 men, infantry and cavalry, with the neceſſary artillery.

II. This body of troops ſhall be put in motion as ſoon as the high contracting parties ſhall be aſſured of the determination of his Pruſſian Majeſty being conformable to what has been ſtated.

With regard to the further movements of this corps, and its combined operations with the Pruſſian troops, his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, will arrange them with his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, and communication ſhall alſo be made of them to his Britannic Majeſty, in order that, by ſuch a concert between the high

The ambaſſadors from the Britannic and Ruſſian courts, authoriſed with ample powers from their reſpective ſovereigns, at that of Pruſſia, employed all their

high allies, the military operations againſt the enemy may be made with greater ſucceſs, and that the object which is propoſed may the more eaſily be attained.

III. In order to facilitate to his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias the means to take ſuch an active part in the preſent war againſt the French, his Britannic Majeſty engages to furniſh the pecuniary ſuccours hereafter ſpecified; his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, nevertheleſs, reſerving to himſelf the right to recall the foreſaid body of troops into his own territories, if, by any unforeſeen event, the whole of this pecuniary ſuccour ſhould not be furniſhed him.

IV. The amount and the nature of theſe pecuniary ſuccours have been fixed and regulated upon the following footing:

1ſt. In order to enable his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias to expedite, as ſoon as poſſible, and in the moſt convenient manner, the troops deſtined to be employed in favour of the good cauſe, his Majeſty the King of Great Britain engages, as ſoon as he ſhall receive advice that the Ruſſian troops, in conſequence of the determination of the King of Pruſſia, are to march, in order to co-operate with thoſe of his ſaid Majeſty, to pay for the firſt and moſt urgent expences 225,000l. ſterling, dividing the payments in ſuch manner as that 75,000l. ſterling ſhould be paid as ſoon as thoſe troops ſhall have paſſed the Ruſſian frontiers; that the ſecond payment, of the ſame ſum, ſhould be made at the expiration of the firſt three months, and on the commencement of the fourth; and that the third payment, completing the ſum total, ſhall be made in like manner after three months, and on the beginning of the ſeventh.

2d. His Majeſty the King of Great Britain engages alſo to furniſh to his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias a ſubſidy of 75,000l. ſterling per month, to be computed from the day on which the corps of the troops above-mentioned ſhall paſs the Ruſſian frontiers. This ſubſidy ſhall be paid at the commencement of each month; and, being deſtined for the appointments and maintenance of the troops, it ſhall be continued during the ſpace of twelve months, unleſs peace ſhould be made ſooner.

3d. The two high contracting parties, beſides, ſhall come to an underſtanding before the expiration of the term of a year above ſpecified, whether, in caſe the war ſhould not be terminated, the ſubſidy above-mentioned ſhall be continued.

V. The two high contracting parties engage not to make either peace or armiſtice without including each other, and without concerting with each other: but if, through any unforeſeen accidents

or

their diplomatical powers and addreſs to engage the King of Pruſſia to enter heartily into this new confederation, as above ſtated,—Honour,—danger,—territorial advan-

or events, his Britannic Majeſty ſhould be under the neceſſity of terminating the war, and thereby of diſcontinuing the payment of the ſubſidy, before the expiration of the twelve months above ſtipulated, he engages in that caſe, to pay three months advance of the ſubſidy agreed upon of 75,000l. ſterling, reckoning from the day on which the information ſhould be received by the General commanding the Ruſſian troops.

VI. In like manner, if any aggreſſion on Ruſſia ſhould take place, by which his Majeſty the Emperor ſhould be obliged to recall his army into his own dominions, the above-mentioned ſubſidy ſhall, in ſuch caſe only, be paid up to the day on which the army ſhall re-enter the Ruſſian frontiers.

VII. His Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias ſhall come to an underſtanding with his ally, his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, reſpecting all the other expences which this corps of troops and its operations may require. His Britannic Majeſty ſhall take no further ſhare in thoſe expences than the ſum of 37,500l. ſterling per month, during all the time that the above-mentioned troops ſhall be employed, by virtue of this treaty, for the common cauſe. That ſum ſhall be advanced by his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias; but his Britannic Majeſty acknowledges it as a debt due by Great Britain to Ruſſia, which he will diſcharge after the concluſion of a peace made by mutual agreement.

The mode and dates of the payment ſhall then be ſettled by mutual concert, according to the reciprocal convenience of the two allied powers.

VIII. The above-mentioned ſubſidies ſhall in this manner be conſidered as a ſufficient ſuccour for all expences, including thoſe which may be neceſſary for the return of the Ruſſian army.

IX. This treaty ſhall be conſidered as proviſional; and its execution, as has been ſtated above, ſhall not take place until his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia ſhall be determined to turn his forces againſt the common enemy; but in caſe he ſhould not do ſo, the two high contracting parties reſerve to themſelves the right and the power to take, for the good of their affairs, and the ſucceſs of the ſalutary end they may have in view, other meaſures analogous to the times and circumſtances, and to agree then upon thoſe which in ſuch a caſe they ſhall judge to be moſt neceſſary, adopting always as a baſis the ſtipulations of the preſent treaty. His Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, in order, nevertheleſs, to give a ſtill more ſtriking proof of his ſincere diſpoſitions, and of his deſire to be as much as poſſible uſeful to his allies, promiſes to put, during the courſe of the negociation

advantages,—ſubſidies,—all were held out to that Prince for his compliance, and coincidence with their views, but to no purpoſe.—Sieyes had ſo powerfully impreſſed on his mind the infallible mode of obtaining aggrandizement and additional territories, at the expence of his belligerent neighbour Princes, by firmly obſerving a neutrality with them, and being on good terms with the French republic, that the confederate ſovereigns were obliged to give up all hopes of alliance with the Pruſſian monarch. This was a ſevere check to their views of ſucceſs in their hoſtile operations, as the King of Pruſſia kept a mighty army of obſervation in the field, and ſtrictly prohibited the belligerent powers to march any of their troops, or tranſport any of their magazines, artillery, &c. through his dominions, as he would view ſuch an aggreſſion as a declaration of hoſtilities.

It ſeems alſo to have been a conſiderable diſappointment to the Britiſh executive government, and their numerous partizans in parliament; as we have already ſeen them in their ſpeeches vehemently recommending the proſecution of the war, that they did not deſpair of gaining over the Pruſſian ſovereign to join in a freſh confederation againſt France.—They were miſerably diſappointed.

But

negociation with his Pruſſian Majeſty, and even previous to its termination, the above-mentioned corps of 45,000 men, upon ſuch a footing, that they may immediately be employed wherever, according to a previous concert amongſt the allies, the utility of the common cauſe ſhall require.

X. The preſent proviſional treaty ſhall be ratified by his Britannic Majeſty, and his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias; and the ratifications ſhall be exchanged here in the ſpace of two months, to be computed from the day of the ſignature, or ſooner, if it can be done.

In witneſs whereof, we, the underſigned, have ſigned the preſent treaty, and have affixed the ſeals of our arms thereto.

Done at Peterſburgh, the 18th of December, 1798.

(L. S.) A. P. DE BESBORODKO.
(L. S.) KOTSCHOUBEY.
(L. S.) CHARLES WHITWORTH.

But we will ſee by the ſubſequent declaration what effect this refuſal of the King of Pruſſia had upon the Britiſh and Ruſſian cabinets, in a note below *.

We

* DECLARATION.

By the proviſional treaty concluded between his Majeſty the King of Great Britain and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, the 18th of December 1798, it is ſtipulated, that the body of 45,000 men, furniſhed by his ſaid Imperial Majeſty for the ſupport of the common cauſe, ſhould be employed in co-operating with the troops of his Pruſſian Majeſty, if that ſovereign *ſhould be induced to join his forces* to thoſe of their Majeſties; but the endeavours which their royal and Imperial Majeſties have employed for this purpoſe having been unſucceſful, and that Prince perſiſting in his adherence to his ſyſtem of neutrality; the two high contracting parties, in order to neglect nothing on their part which may contribute to the ſucceſs of the good cauſe, have reſolved that the ſaid body of 45,000 men, originally deſtined to ſecond the hoſtile demonſtrations of Pruſſia againſt France, ſhall be equally employed againſt the common enemy in whatever other quarter their Majeſties may judge it to be moſt advantageous to their common operations.

For this purpoſe the plenipotentiaries of their ſaid royal and Imperial Majeſties have ſigned the preſent declaration, which is to be conſidered as forming a part of the proviſional treaty above-mentioned.

Done at Peterſburgh this 18th of June 1799.

(L. S.) LE COMPTE KOTCHOUBEY
(L. S.) LE COMPTE DE ROSTOPSIN
(L. S.) CHARLES WHITWORTH.

The Convention between his Britannic Majeſty and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias. Signed at St. Peterſburgh 11th of June, 1799.

In the name of the moſt holy and indiviſible Trinity.

His Majeſty the King of Great Britain, and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, in conſequence of the friendſhip and ties of intimacy and alliance which exiſt between them, and of their common and ſincere co-operation in the preſent war againſt the French, have conſtantly in their view to uſe every means in their power moſt effectually to diſtreſs the common enemy; have judged that the expulſion of the French from the ſeven United provinces, and the deliverance of the latter from the yoke under which they have ſo long groaned, were objects worthy of their particular attention; and wiſhing at the ſame time to give effect, as far as poſſible, to a deſign of that importance, their ſaid Majeſties have reſolved to conclude

We now return to the hiſtory of the war on the continent.

The Archduke (12th of May) put all his columns in motion: General Nauendorf, who was at Engen, marched

clude with each other a convention relative to this plan, and to the moſt proper means of carrying it into the moſt ſpeedy execution. For this purpoſe they have named, as their plenipotentiaries, to wit, his Majeſty the King of Great Britain, Sir Charles Whitworth, his envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary to the Imperial court of Ruſſia; and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, the Count of Kotſchoubey, his vice chancellor, &c. &c.—who, after having reciprocally communicated to each other their full powers, have agreed upon the following articles:—

Article I. His Majeſty the King of Great Britain thinking that the object above announced, cannot be better attained than by the aid of a body of Ruſſian troops, his Imperial Majeſty notwithſtanding the efforts which have already been made, and the difficulties of his employing an additional body of forces to act at a diſtance from his own dominions, has, nevertheleſs, in conſequence of his conſtant ſolicitude in favour of the good cauſe, conſented to furniſh ſeven battalions of infantry, two companies of artillery, one company of pioneers, and one ſquadron of huſſars, making in all 17,593 men, to be deſtined for the ſaid expedition to Holland. But as that number of troops, according to the plan propoſed by his Britannic Majeſty, is not ſufficient; and as it has been judged that 30,000 men will be neceſſary for that purpoſe, his ſaid Majeſty will, on his ſide, furniſh 13,000 men of Engliſh troops, or at leaſt 8,000 men, if that a ſmaller number ſhould be deemed ſufficient, and amongſt whom there ſhall be a proportion of cavalry ſufficient for the ſervices of ſuch an army.

II. This corps of troops of 17,593 men, together with the neceſſary artillery, ſhall aſſemble at Revel, in order that they may be from thence conveyed to their deſtination, either in Engliſh or other veſſels, freighted by his Britannic Majeſty.

III. In order to enable his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, to afford to the common cauſe this additional and efficacious ſuccour, his Majeſty the King of Great Britain engages to furniſh the under-mentioned ſubſidies, &c.—

IV. The amount and nature of theſe pecuniary ſuccours have been ſettled in the following manner:

1ſt. In order to enable his Imperial Majeſty to aſſemble and expedite this corps as ſoon, and as well equipped as poſſible, his Majeſty the King of Great Britain engages, to pay for the firſt and moſt urgent expences the ſum of 88,000l. ſterling, dividing the pay-

marched his vanguard upon Schaffhauſen, and made preparations as if he intended to force the paſſage of the Rhine.

Maſſena,

ments into two parts, to wit, that 44,000l. ſterling be paid immediately;—and the ſecond payment, completing the ſum total of 88,000l. ſterling ſhall take place three months afterwards, and at the commencement of the fourth.

2d. His Britannic Majeſty engages, in like manner, to furniſh to his Majeſty the Ruſſian Emperor, a ſubſidy of 44,000l. ſterling to be paid monthly.—This ſubſidy ſhall be paid at the commencement of each month, and deſtined for the appointments and entertainment of the troops. It ſhall be continued until they return into Ruſſian ports in Engliſh or other veſſels freighted by his Britannic Majeſty.

V. As the tranſport of the horſes neceſſary for the officers, the artillery and the baggage, would require a great many veſſels, and as that arrangement would lead to many other inconveniences, and more particularly to that of a delay—his Britannic Majeſty engages to furniſh at his own expence, the neceſſary number of horſes,—and in like manner, maintain them at his own expence, during the whole time theſe troops ſhall be employed, and until they ſhall be re-embarked, in order to return to the ports of Ruſſia.

VI. In caſe that the Ruſſian troops, after having terminated in Holland the projected expedition, or in conſequence of its being deferred through any unforeſeen circumſtances, ſhould not be able to return into the ports of his Imperial Majeſty during the favourable ſeaſon, his Majeſty the King of Great Britain engages to receive them into his dominions, to provide them there with good quarters, and all other advantages, until the troops ſhall be able to return on the opening of the navigation, or ſhall be employed upon ſome other deſtination which ſhall be previouſly ſettled between their Royal and Imperial Majeſties.

VII. As the principal object of the employment of this corps of troops is a ſudden attack to be made on Holland, by means of which his Britannic Majeſty hopes to produce there a favourable change; as, beſides, no fixed term for the continuance of the ſubſidies is ſtipulated, whilſt on the other hand, the ſaid troops, after their return to Ruſſia, muſt be re-conducted to their ordinary quarters, moſtly at a great diſtance; and as the marches they will have to make will require conſiderable expences, his Majeſty the King of Great Britain hereby engages to make good this charge, by a payment of ſubſidies for two months, to be computed from the day of the arrival of thoſe troops in Ruſſian ports.

VIII.

Maſſena, who continued, mean while, to extend the fortifications and entrenchments near Baſle, had conſiderably reinforced the diviſion which occupied an advantageous

VIII. As it is underſtood that the expedition to Holland, which has given riſe to the preſent convention, is to be effected in common by Ruſſian and Engliſh troops, each party ſhall follow, relative to the employment and to the command of the troops, literally, the treaty of defenſive alliance, concluded between the two high contracting parties February 18th, 1795. In like manner, if any difficulties ſhould ariſe either between the commanders of the reſpective forces, or otherwiſe, which may regard the abovementioned troops of his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſians, the ſolution of ſuch difficulties ſhall be looked for in the ſtipulations of the ſaid treaty of the year 1795.

In witneſs whereof, we the underſigned, furniſhed with full powers by his Majeſty the King of Great Britain, and by his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, have, in their names, ſigned the preſent convention, and have affixed thereto the ſeals of our arms.

Done at Peterſburgh 11th of June 1799.

(L. S.) Le Compte de Kotschoubey
(L. S.) Le Compte de Rostopsin
(L. S.) Charles Whitworth.

Declaration made by his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, to the members of the German empire.

His Imperial Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, ever animated with zeal for the cauſe of ſovereigns, and wiſhing to put a ſtop to the ravages and diſorders which have been ſpread, by the impious government under which France groans, to the remoteſt countries—being fully determined to diſpatch his ſea and land forces for the ſupport of the ſufferers, and to reſtore royalty to France, without, however, admitting any partition of that country; to reeſtabliſh the ancient forms of government in the United Netherlands and in the Swiſs cantons; to maintain the integrity of the German empire, and to look for his reward in the happineſs and tranquillity of Europe.—Providence has bleſſed his arms, and hitherto the Ruſſian troops have triumphed over the enemies of thrones, religion, and ſocial order. His Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, having thus declared his views, and the motives by which he is guided, addreſſes this declaration to all the members of the German empire, inviting them to unite their forces with his to deſtroy their common enemy as ſpeedily as poſſible, to found on his ruins permanent tranquillity for themſelves and their poſterity.

Should

vantageous poſition before Lorach and Rheinfelden, ſo that this ſupport to his left was become very reſpectable.

General Hotze, on the 14th of May, made his general attack, and this time gained poſſeſſion of the key of the Griſons, which for two months paſt had coſt ſo much blood on both ſides. He had divided his forces, and formed four columns; the firſt was deſtined to make a falſe attack at the head of the deſile, and threaten the flanks of the entrenchments; the ſecond was to traverſe the mountains above Mayenfield, to deſcend on the rear, and facilitate the attack in front, which was afterwards to become ſerious; the third was to free the Seeviſer Alps; and the fourth, with the cavalry and artillery, to force a paſſage by Slapiner-Joch. Hotze commanded the column in front, and General Jellachich commanded the other three attacks. The Auſtrians did not reach the rear of the entrenchments of the French, or aſſemble their columns on this point, the only one where this junction was poſſible, till after a march of twelve hours, and extreme labour, in which they were greatly aſſiſted by the inhabitants who ſhared in their dangers and lightened their fatigue. At this moment Jellachich attacked the entrenchments in the rear. Hotze forced the paſs, and advancing to the gate, notwithſtanding the fire of the French, blew it up, and penetrated into the fort, commanded by General Humbert. The whole of the French 14th demi-brigade, amounting to 3,000 men, were made priſoners. Upon the taking of Lucienſteig, the French retreated precipitately

Should his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, perceive that they ſupport his views, and rally around him, he will, inſtead of relaxing his zeal redouble his exertions, and not ſheathe his ſword before he has ſeen the downfal of *the monſter* which threatens to cruſh all legal authorities. But, ſhould he be left to himſelf, he will then be forced to recall his forces to his ſtates, and to give up a cauſe, ſo badly ſupported by thoſe who ought to have the greateſt ſhare in its triumph.

Gatſchina, September 15th, 1799.

precipitately acroſs the Rhine, yet in good order, and in three inverted columns.

Bellegarde, who, during theſe attacks, had ſtruck out of the valley of the Inn, and marched upon Lenz, endeavoured to cut off the retreat of the French, by the upper valley of the Rhine, and which would have eaſily opened to him the paſſes into the little cantons, and the means of attaining St. Gothard; but he could not reach the valley of the Griſons until the day after the taking of Lucienſteig, and till the rearguard of the left column had evacuated Coire and Reichenau, of which Bellegarde took poſſeſſion, and made four companies priſoners. Hotze, mean while, croſſed the Rhine with a ſtrong vanguard, paſſed through Sargans, which had been burnt by the French, and marched upon Wallenſtadt. Bellegarde aſcended the Upper Rhine in purſuit of the column which had retreated to Diſſentis. The whole country of the Griſons, excepting the narrow valleys bordering on the little cantons, were entirely evacuated by the French: the other paſſes, on the ſide of Switzerland, were occupied by the Imperialiſts.

Maſſena now found that there was an abſolute neceſſity for concentrating his forces. That line of the external defence of Switzerland which, from the Lake of Conſtance to the chain of the Rhætian Alps, conſiſts in the occupation of a ſmall number of important poſts, on an extent of near ſixty leagues, was broken up on all ſides, nor could they longer be defended againſt ſuch ſuperior forces.

The ſucceſſes of the allied army greatly furthered the progreſs of the Archduke. Suwarrow's ſuperiority of forces had permitted him to detach various corps, which, taking ſucceſſive poſſeſſion of the valleys, checked the French troops which were poſted in the defiles and paſſes of Switzerland, the extremities of which were rendered equally inſecure from the inteſtine commotions which convulſed the leſſer cantons. Theſe inſurrections had been repreſſed by General Soult, who had

had penetrated as far as St. Gothard, to ſupport Lecourbe; but the ſpirit of inſubordination was very far from being extinguiſhed, and the ſituation of the French, in the Italian bailiwicks, grew more difficult every day.

Suwarrow, having reached the centre of Lombardy more rapidly than he had conceived it poſſible; and after the undiſturbed paſſage of the Adda, and the poſſeſſion of Milan, divided a great part of his forces in purſuit of four different objects. On the weſt and in front he had to follow up his operations againſt the army of Moreau, in order to haſten his retreat, and force him to abandon Piedmont and Genoa before he received reinforcements; on the north and on his right, to penetrate into the valleys above the lakes, and to facilitate the movements of the left of the Archduke's army beyond St. Gothard; on the eaſt and behind him, Kray beſieged Mantua with a body of 25,000 men; while General Klenau inveſted Ferrara, and blocked Bologna, the vigorous defence of which places, cauſed a very favourable diverſion to that diviſion of the French army which was retreating from Naples and Rome, towards Tuſcany, under the command of General Macdonald; and towards the ſouth and on his left, Suwarrow had detached General Ott, with a ſtrong diviſion, to ſupport General Klenau, to ſtop the progreſs of Macdonald's army, to ſeize the paſſes of the Appenines in Upper Tuſcany, and intercept the communications with that country and the Ligurian republic. In this manner the whole of Italy was occupied by the French and Imperial armies, the different diviſions and poſts of which were thus intermingled. From the centre of Lombardy to the two ſeas, there was not a place or poſt, whether ſupported by the French armies or inſulated, which was not attacked, or vigorouſly defended.

There was not, in the vaſt circle of the Alps, or in the long chain of the Appenines, a ſingle paſs which had not, at this moment, a relative importance with reſpect to the immediate operations, and which was not

not ſeized or diſputed, either by detached troops, or by the inhabitants of the country, which compoſed an auxiliary force, of which diverſity of opinion, conſtraint, or victory, augmented continually the number.

No period of the hiſtory of the wars of Italy, bore any reſemblance to the preſent: as we have never ſeen a conqueſt ſo rapid, or which appeared more ſolid, than that of Bonaparte; if it be true, that change in the form of government, the diſpoſal of the reſources of the whole public force of a ſtate, confirm the dominion of conquerors,—ſo alſo, never were ſo many advantages loſt, ſo many means of preſervation deſtroyed, in ſo ſhort a ſpace of time, and almoſt, as it were, at a ſingle blow.

The Ruſſian commander having thus diſſeminated his forces, Moreau, after the paſſage of the Adda, and the evacuation of Milan, made his retreat in good order in three columns; that of the right marching from Lodi upon Piacenza; that of the centre by the road of Milan to Genoa, upon Pavia Voghera; that of the left by Vivegano and Novarra. While the main of the army retreated thus upon the Ligurian republic, Moreau went to Turin, where he put a ſtop to diſorders which had taken place, made preparations for the evacuation of this city and the arſenal, and proviſion for the defence of the citadel, which he confided to General Fiorello. He alſo re-eſtabliſhed the communications, which was highly important, on account of the ſuccours which he expected from Switzerland by the Lower Vallais, Mount St. Bernard, and the valley of Auſt; from the ſouthern departments by Mount Cenis and the valley of Suſa; and from Briancon by the valley of Exiles. His army, however, being reduced to about 25,000 men, he found himſelf unable to defend, with any hopes of ſucceſs, the plains of Piedmont, to cover the country of Genoa, and keep up its communications on each ſide, which were ſo important, as well for the junction of his army with that of Naples,

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as for the arrival of ſuccours by Nice; Moreau left Turin on the 7th of May, and transferred his head-quarters to Aleſſandria. He had previouſly taken a poſition under Tortona, extending the advanced poſts on his right, towards the Appenines, in order to narrow this interval as much as poſſible, and favour the retreat of Macdonald, by retaining, as long as poſſible, Suwarrow on the left ſide of the Po. That General, mean while, had advanced as far as Pavia, on the 1ſt of May, and detached from his right, a ſtrong vanguard under General Vukaſſovich to take poſſeſſion of Novarra, and other places evacuated by the French troops, with orders to aſcend the Po as far as Turin, and divert Moreau's attention to his rear, by attacking, and even flanking, his left wing. At the ſame time, General Hohenzollern marched upon Piacenza, with a part of the allied army, and, aſcending the right ſide of the Po, had forced back the vanguard of the French beyond Voghera, near Tortona: in aid of this movement, and with a view of ſeizing, at a later period, the paſſages into the country of Genoa by the Appenines, Suwarrow took poſt at Bobbio, on the road from Piacenza to Genoa.

General Kray, after the taking of Peſchiera, had marched upon Borgo-forte, and aſſembled all his forces around Mantua. The garriſon made frequent ſallies, ſome of which became ſerious engagements. The ſiege of the caſtle of Milan was begun, May 5th, by General Laterman; and on the ſame day, General Kaim opened the trenches before Pizzighitone of which after four days ſiege, he gained poſſeſſion, from the blowing up of a powder magazine, when the garriſon conſiſting of 600 men capitulated. Ferrara, Belonga, Ravenna, Fort Urbin, and Ancona, ſtill held out. Suwarrow's main army was much diminiſhed by theſe different operations, and diverging movements, which, conſidering the weakneſs and ſituation of the French, were not only inexpedient and uſeleſs, but loſt him the opportunity of exterminating the whole of the French armies

armies in Italy, and of opening a paſſage into the ſouthern departments of France.

Suwarrow's ignorance of his advantages, and the ſkilful tactics of Moreau, ſaved both. The Ruſſian general, however, kept cloſe on Moreau, and attempted to diſlodge him from the ſtrong poſition he had taken, which was a kind of entrenched camp, where he had fortified himſelf, behind the Po and the Tanaro, between Valenza and Aleſſandria. Tortona was attacked by General Chaſteler, who blew up the gates under the fire of the caſtle, into which the French garriſon withdrew.

The greater part of the allied army, increaſed by Kaim's diviſion, paſſed the Scrivia, and encamped at Torre Garafolo. General Karaczay was detached with a corps to take poſſeſſion of Novi, Serravalle, and Gavi. This movement of Suwarrow by his left flank, and the courſes of his light troops into the country between the courſe of the Tanaro and the Appenines, did not ſhake the French general's determination. Moreau had flanked his right by Aleſſandria, his left by Valenza, and had thrown ſtrong detachments into Caſal and Verrua; nor was he deceived reſpecting Suwarrow's projects, of menacing the right of the French army, and its communications with Genoa, only to ſurpriſe a paſſage over the Po on his left, and to ſurround, and engage it in a general and deciſive action. This project was ſeconded by the attacks of the inhabitants of Mondovi, Cheraſco, Ceva, and Oneglia, who took arms on a ſudden; which inſurrections were already ſo ſtrong, and ſo well organized, that a battalion, which was marching to join the French army, was deſtroyed. Moreau's poſition was ſuch, that, had he loſt a battle, a retreat on either ſide of the Appenines became almoſt impoſſible.

The left of General Moreau's army was attacked by a vanguard of the Imperial troops, who, having paſſed the Po above Valenza, had been ſeverely handled, and repulſed.

The affair, however, became more ſerious on the following day: a Ruſſian diviſion, of 7,000 men, under General Schubart, paſſed the river below Valenza, near the confluence of the Po and the Tanaro, and marched towards Pecetto, between Aleſſandria and Tortona, in order to cut off the line of the French. The firſt ſhock of the Ruſſians was met by the diviſion under General Grenier; when Moreau attacking them in flank, with the diviſion under Victor, the Ruſſians were driven back, and a great number killed or drowned in the Po, amongſt whom was the Ruſſian commander himſelf. After the failure of this ſecond attempt, Suwarrow determined to march his main force along the left ſide of the Po to Turin, in order to diſlodge Moreau from his camp, and make him fall back, either on the frontiers of France, or retreat into the Ligurian republic. With this view, General Vukaſſovich made attacks on Verrua, Ponte Stura, and Caſal; while a part of the troops under General Melas, on the right ſide of the Po, received orders to paſs, the night following, over to the left ſide, and march upon Candia. Whether the vigilant Moreau had information of this project, or perceived certain movements in the Ruſſian camp at Torre di Garafolo, where there ought to have remained but an inconſiderable body, he threw a bridge, during the night, over the Bormida, near Aleſſandria, and paſſed it in the morning with 7,000 men, leading the cavalry himſelf. He firſt attacked, and broke the chain of advanced poſts of the Coſſacks at Marenzo, and purſued them to Santo Guiliano; and then detached a body of troops by his left, to drive in the advanced poſts of General Melas, and march upon the camp of Torri di Garafolo, under the command of General Luſignan, whom he forced to abandon his poſition, and whom he ſeparated for ſome time from a body of ſeven Ruſſian battalion. Theſe two Imperial diviſions, after conſiderable loſs, rallied at length againſt the French, who retreated acroſs their bridges to Aleſſandria.

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This was the laſt effort made by Moreau to preſerve this poſition. Suwarrow, whoſe head-quarters were at Lumello, haſtened the attack on the French poſts on the right ſide of the Po, above Valenza; General Vukaſſovich alſo attacked and carried Caſal. The French entrenched camp being no longer tenable, Moreau, forced to evacuate Valenza and Aleſſandria, made good his retreat, after having provided for the defence of the citadel of the latter place, and marched his army by Aſti and Chieraſco upon Coni.

He detached alſo a body of troops on his right to occupy Ceva and Mendovi, to open the communications with Genoa, and that part of the coaſt which had been interrupted by the inſurrections of the peaſants. This poſition was the beſt he could have taken to receive the reinforcements which he expected from the ſouthern departments of France, and by Oneglia, Finale, and other ſmall ſea-ports.

By theſe ſkilfully combined military manœuvres, Moreau not only ſaved the wreck of Scherrer's army, but gave time to General Macdonald to reach the frontiers of the Ligurian republic; and enabled General Perignon, who had come a few days before to the aid of this place, to ſtop up the paſſages on the ſides of the mountains, to ſtrengthen his means of defence, and to ſecure ſuch advanced poſitions as might beſt favour the junction of the two armies.

Suwarrow, who had taken diſadvantageous poſitions on both ſides of the Po, below the double confluence of the Bormida and the Tanaro, had been unable to execute his plan of ſurrounding the French army in the camp of Aleſſandria. After the evacuation of this place, which he now occupied, he formed the blockade of the citadel with the diviſion of General Schwerkoſky; a corps under General Seckendorf had advanced on the ſide of the Acqui; and the centre of the allied army, under the orders of General Melas, had marched upon Candia. Conſiderable falls of rain retarded, for ſome days, theſe marches, directed againſt Turin, on both ſides

ſides of the Po: General Melas having croſſed the Seſſia, continued his march to Stura. The Ruſſian diviſions under General Karaczay paſſed this river and the Doria, and took an advantageous poſition in face of the Chartreuſe.

The corps under General Vukaſſovich advanced by the right ſide of the Po, and took poſt on the heights of the Capuchins; the city of Turin thus inveſted, was cannonaded, and ſummoned to ſurrender, which the French commander, Fiorella, refuſed to do, and returned the fire of the beſiegers; but a bomb having ſet fire to a houſe near the gate of the Po, the armed inhabitants took advantage of the diſorder, and having ſeized on the gate, opened it to the allies, when two ſquadrons of the 7th huſſars immediately forced their way into the city; thoſe purſued the flying enemy to the gate of the citadel, and took forty of them priſoners. In the mean while, General Vukaſſovich occupied the city with the greateſt part of his infantry, and cauſed the other gates to be opened; on which the whole of the garriſon, conſiſting of about 3,000 men, threw themſelves into the citadel; and Field-marſhal Kaim's diviſion occupied the city, who was ordered to blockade the citadel within Turin, while the Ruſſian general, Prince Pankraſion, blockaded its environs with five battalions, four companies of rangers, and four ſquadrons of Lewenhoer. There were found in that arſenal, and on the ramparts of the city, 360 cannon and mortars, of different calibres, and a very conſiderable quantity of balls and bombs, with more than 6,000 hundred weight of powder, and other military ſtores. The enemy left behind them an hoſpital with 215 ſick men. Immediately on the capture of the city, the enemy cannonaded it from the citadel for an hour, and repeated their fire the next day from the morning light until five in the evening, when an agreement was made, by the terms of which convention they were to do nothing farther prejudicial to the city.

So

J. Ashby Sculp.t Nottm.

GENERAL SUWARROW

Engrav'd for Vint & Anderson's History of the War.

So rapid and ſo ſucceſsful were the marches of Suwarrow *, that ten weeks only had paſſed from the beginning of hoſtilities on the Adige, until that General encamped

* Our readers may, perhaps, wiſh to know ſomething concerning this redoubtable hero. The following account has been given as a ſketch of his character:

Marſhal Suwarrow, or, as his name is pronounced by the Ruſſians, Suffroff, is ſaid to be an early riſer. In the field, he dines uſually at ſeven in the morning, and is contented with coarſe food, very little differing from that of the common ſoldiers, with whom he drinks frequently, and on that account is very much beloved by them. His dreſs is of the plaineſt ſtuff; and he made his public entry into Warſaw, after that capital of Poland ſurrendered, not in a triumphant manner, like the conquerors of old, but riding on an ordinary Coſſack horſe; and on his journey to Cracow, he did not alight from his carriage, but called for a glaſs of brandy and a baſon of water. He drank off the brandy, and waſhed his face with the cold water, being then dreſſed only in his ſhirt, with a cloak thrown over it. At Hazof, where there was an Hungarian regiment, he aſſembled their officers, ſaluted them by kiſſing one cheek of each, and their Major on both cheeks and the forehead. Then calling for wine, he drank the health of Frederick II. on his knees, making all the company do the ſame, while he continued ſtill kneeling, and concluded with a ſhort prayer, when he roſe up, and drank the health of the Ruſſian Emperor his maſter. Then he went and bathed in an ice-bath, which was generally prepared for him when he arrived at any place. His wardrobe conſiſts of a very ſhort white waiſtcoat, white breeches, ſhort boots, and a cloak. Some time after the reduction of Poland, being in company with a party of Pruſſian officers, one of them, who had been extolling their exploits for a long time, at laſt addreſſed Suwarrow thus: "Does your excellency remember the grand manœuvre which we made on ſuch an occaſion, how we diſtributed our troops ——" He was then proceeding to explain the whole operations in detail. Suwarrow, who is by no means partial to the Pruſſians, being tired out with hearing this pompous recital, replied haſtily, "Yes, yes, I remember very well, it was that affair of the windmills." Then riſing from his ſeat, he drank the King of Pruſſia's health, and left the company. His antipathy to looking-glaſſes is ſaid to be ſo great, that whenever he enters an apartment where there is ſuch an article of furniture, he turns from it, and hides his face; neither would he ever ſuffer, with his knowledge, a picture of him to be taken.

The following laughable anecdote is related of this extraordinary character, which we inſert merely for the merriment of our readers, not

encamped within ſight of the frontiers of France. But though Suwarrow had made this progreſs in front, he had ſtill an army behind him, againſt which it was neceſſary to aſſemble a powerful force.

General Macdonald, on the news of the retreat before Mantua, had quite evacuated the kingdom of Naples. He had ordered a camp to be formed at Caſerta, and created at Naples a ſtrong national guard. Fort St. Elms, Capua, and Gaeta were proviſioned as if deſtined to undergo a ſiege; the government was organized, and the Neapolitans were well diſpoſed to defend themſelves. Several Engliſh veſſels were cruiſing at the entrance of the road, and interceped all communication by ſea. As ſoon as Macdonald had received poſitive orders from Scherrer to join the army of Italy, he recalled the diviſion which was in Pouille, and that alſo on the frontiers of Calabria, and leaving the camp of Caſerta,

not vouching for its authenticity.—Having occaſion for a barber, he ſent for one, who made his appearance, aud was preparing to perform the operation, when Suwarrow (his olfactory nerves might probably be more acute than ordinary, from his plain diet and frequent uſe of the ice-bath,) drew up his noſe, and complained of a bad ſmell, which he attributed to the barber's coat, and ordered him to put it off. The barber obeyed, and then began to lather him. Suwarrow ſtill complaining, he was forced to put off his waiſtcoat; the Marſhal ſtill complaining, his ſhirt followed, to all which uncaſing the barber patiently ſubmitted. But now came *his* turn of the jeſt. "Methinks," ſaid he, drawing up his noſe like Suwarrow, "the ſmell your excellency was complaining of is not yet removed. I fancy, that as I have no clothes on me, it muſt be your excellency's coat." "Very likely," ſaid Suwarrow, and immediately pulled it off; the barber, determined to have his revenge, ſtill complained of the ſmell, till the Marſhal was as bare as himſelf. Then having well lathered, and partly blinded him, he began to flouriſh with his razor, inſtead of making plain work; cutting him ſeveral times, till Suwarrow, quite exhauſted, roſe in haſte, and forgetting the ſituation he was in, purſued the barber, and preſented himſelf to the army thus naked and lathered.—The laugh it exacted, cauſed him to retreat as precipitately as he had ruſhed out, while the barber made his eſcape, better than the *ſans culottes*, or bare-breeched French, which Marſhal Suwarrow had now to deal with.

Caſerta, marched by Rome upon Florence, leaving a ſtrong garriſon at fort St. Elmo, Capua, and Gaeta. The firſt diviſion commanded by General Oliver, which tranſverſed St. Germano and Iſola, found the country in inſurrection; two villages were taken by ſtorm, and almoſt the whole of the inhabitants periſhed in the attack. The patriots of Naples had beheld the retreat of the French troops with conſternation, as did alſo thoſe of Rome; in this laſt city a garriſon was left, which in caſe of attack by ſuperior forces, was to retire into the fort of St. Angelo.

Generals Gauthier and Miolis, who commanded the French troops in Tuſcany, had made preparations to receive the army of Naples; and had formed a camp of obſervation between Florence and Bologna, cloſing up all the paſſes of the Appenines. Suwarrow had not a moment to loſe, to hinder a junction which might diſconcert his deſigns, and change the whole face of affairs. The celerity of Macdonald's march with ſo conſiderable a force, the manœuvres of General Moreau, and the firmneſs of the corps of obſervation in Tuſcany and in the Bologneſe, had now rendered poſſible the moſt difficult retreat that had ever been attempted.

For theſe important reaſons, Suwarrow puſhed on his ſieges, with vigour; a kind of warfare which hindered him from diſpoſing of all his forces in the field, and which had retarded his operations againſt Tuſcany, and againſt the intermediary poſitions occupied by the French. The ſiege of the caſtle of Milan, where he had ſent General Hohenzollern, with a reinforcement of five or ſix battalions, was interrupted, from the neceſſity he was under of ſending ſuccours to the Prince of Rohan who had to contend againſt ſuperior forces, between the lakes of Como and Lugano, at the entrance of the Italian Bailiwicks, where, notwithſtanding the inſurrection of the inhabitants in his favour, he had not been able to maintain himſelf againſt Lecourbe.

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The French, however, were obliged to retreat from Lugano acroſs mount Cenere, and regain Switzerland by the Levantine valley; after which the Imperial troops were recalled, and, on the 25th of May, the trenches opened againſt the citadel of Milan, the commander of which capitulated, and obtained for his garriſon, conſiſting of 2,000 men, a free paſſage, and the honours of war, with the condition only of not ſerving for one year againſt the Imperial armies. The citadel of Ferrara, having a garriſon of 1,500 men, ſurrendered at the ſame time to General Klenau, on the ſame conditions.

Ravenna was taken a few days after, the peaſants aiding the attack; other poſts of inferior conſequence, in the Roman republic ſurrendered ſucceſſively; and Ancona was bombarded by a combined ſquadron of ſeven Ruſſian and Turkiſh ſhips, and ſix frigates under the command of Vice-admiral Paſtokin. General Kray ſtill carried on the ſiege of Mantua, who, having repulſed a briſk ſalley of the garriſon, received orders to draw off his troops, leaving a number ſufficient to keep up the blockade, which were afterwards reinforced by other diviſions, and to form with thoſe troops, and with the diviſions of Ott on his left, a new army of which he afterwards took the command. His firſt object was to force the French to evacuate Bologna, and which they vigorouſly defended, aided by the brave Bologneſe, becauſe it was in fact the place which was of moſt importance to them beyond the Appenines, the ſituation of which place, cutting the roads and retarding the marches of the allies towards Tuſcany, yielded the moſt favourable protection to the retreat of the army of Naples. It was only by diſlodging the French from this intermediate point, that Kray could rally his forces, and march to meet General Macdonald, who had already reached the Tuſcan territory; his vanguard was at Florence; Leghorn and Lucca had been put in a ſtate of defence, in order to provide a laſt retreat towards the ſea, if it ſhould be found impoſſible

to

to effectuate the junction of the two armies by the Ligurian territory.

Such was the reſpective ſituation of the armies of Italy, at the beginning of June.

The progreſs of the Archduke in Switzerland was not leſs intereſting, nor leſs diſputed; and from the nature of the country, ſtill more difficult than that of Suwarrow. The French columns had retreated from the Griſons, purſued by Generals Hotze and Bellegarde. The column which aſcended the valley of the nether Rhine by Hantz, under General Suchet, had reached Uſeren, where Lecourbe, after having repaſſed the St. Gothard from Bellinzone, rallied on the right, and drew nearer to Maſſena's main army; the rear-guard of the column which retreated by Sargans, were vigorouſly attacked by the corps of Swiſs emigrants.

At the moment when the vanguard of General Nauendorf, followed by the main army of the Archduke, paſſed the Rhine at Schaffhauſen and at Stein, Hotze, whoſe light troops had poſſeſſion of St. Gall, paſſed the Rhine alſo with the whole diviſion. The diviſion of the French under General de Lorge, had already evacuated the Rheinthal; and General Hotze, after having taken poſſeſſion of the poſt of Werdenberg, penetrated by the ſources of the Thur, into the Tuggenburg.

While the troops which had paſſed at Rheinack, marched upon St. Gall, the column which followed the courſe of the Thur, made a forced march to deſcend into the Thurgau: the deſign of Hotze in this manœuvre, was to effect a junction with the vanguard of Nauendorf which had taken poſt at Andelfingen, in order to cover the paſſage, and effect the eſtabliſhment of the reſt of the army; the Archduke wiſhing to rally the whole of his troops before he came to a general engagement.

Theſe manœuvres were not unknown to General Maſſena, who, in order to prevent this junction, and retard the attack of his lines on the Limmat, marched

againſt the vanguard of Nauendorf, which already extended beyond the left ſide of Thur, and againſt that of General Hotze, which was ſurpriſed on its march. Theſe two attacks became ſerious engagements; the poſts of Nauendorf's vanguard were carried; the huſſars who ſupported them were repulſed and driven into the Thur; the French re-took the bridge of Andelfingen, but could not retain it on account of the fire from the oppoſite bank. On the ſide of Trauenfield, the engagement was ſtill more warm. Several regiments, both cavalry and infantry, were ſurrounded on the road from Conſtance to Zurich; the Auſtrian infantry ſuffered the more from their being greatly fatigued, having marched the whole of the preceding night; and one regiment was almoſt all cut to pieces. The Kinſky dragoons, led on by the Prince of Roſenberg, made every effort to ſupport the infantry engaged on a diſadvantageous ground. The action had laſted from nine in the morning, till five in the afternoon; and the Auſtrians had been very ſeverely treated, when a corps-de-reſerve of Imperialiſts advanced, and gave a check to the French troops, amongſt whom was the Swiſs auxiliary legion, whoſe commander, General Weber, was killed.

The Archduke notwithſtanding this unexpected reſiſtance, obtained what he had in view: he had tranſferred his head quarters to Paradies, and, next day retook all his poſts on the left ſide of the Thur: to effect the junction, he marched upon Winterthur, while General Hotze, after forcing the French back to the mountain called the Steig-paſs, on the road of Zurich, attacked them in front. The engagement had laſted from day-break. At mid-day, the Archduke came up and attacked the ſteig-paſs, which was covered by a battery, firing grape-ſhot from the top of the mountain, and flanked by woods filled with French and Swiſs light-horſe. This poſt, for which the Auſtrians dearly paid, was carried, notwithſtanding the obſtinate reſiſtance of the French, who withdrew to a little diſtance, on the left

left ſide of the Töſs. The junction of the diviſion of Hotze to the Archduke's army was made at Winterthur, where the head-quarters were eſtabliſhed.

General Bellegarde, on the ſide of the mountains, had alſo taken every advantage of his ſituation: having ſecured the paſſage of St. Gothard, his forces had been augmented, by the ardour of the inhabitants of the leſſer cantons to take up arms once more againſt the French. He had taken poſſeſſion of the canton of Glaris, and menaced Lucerne ſo ſeriouſly, that the members of the Helvetic government quitted the place of their adminiſtration, and withdrew to Berne. He had alſo marched a body of troops to Schweitz, but was unable to maintain himſelf in the poſition againſt the attacks of Lecourbe, who had taken a ſtrong poſition at Waſen, near the valley of Urſeren. Thus the whole courſe of the Limmat, the ſecond of the three principal lines of the defenſive in Switzerland, was flanked on the right, and the higheſt grounds were in the poſſeſſion of the Imperialiſts.

A body of troops had alſo marched from Glaris. Lecourbe, in this interval, had repulſed the Auſtrians, and carried an important poſt, after an obſtinate engagement, keeping his poſition at Waſen.

The two hoſtile armies being thus ſituated, the Archduke, on the 4th of June paſſed the Glatt, and took up his head-quarters at Klotten, puſhing his advanced poſts within gun-ſhot of the French entrenchments, menacing the right of the French, and having the command of all the heights. After having reconnoitered this poſition, which was very ſtrong by nature, and otherwiſe fortified by art, he attacked the villages in the moſt ſalient part of the line, which were obſtinately defended—taken, and retaken. The next day, (5th June) the Archduke bore down with his whole forces upon the entrenchments, which the French defended till night, the engagement having taken place on the whole of the line at once, and with obſtinate bravery on both ſides. Few actions have cauſed a greater

greater effuſion of human blood. In this engagement the Auſtrian generals Hotze, Wallis, Kerpen, and Hillier; and on the ſide of the French, the Generals Humbert and Oudinot, were wounded. The Archduke had iſſued orders for the re-commencement of the attack early the next morning; but General Maſſena evacuated Zurich during the night, and poſted his troops on Mount Albis; his left flanked by the Rhine, and his right by the Lake of Zug. The Archduke, on the 7th of June, eſtabliſhed his head-quarters at Zurich.

No doubt, from theſe details of mutual hoſtile aggreſſions and ſkilful manœuvres, can be entertained, of the wonderful advance theſe military commanders had made in the fatal ſcience of carrying on war. Conviction forces itſelf upon us in taking a ſhort retroſpective view of this war, carried on among frightful mountains, and hideous precipices, and of the numerous and ſcarcely intermitted engagements, or more properly, continued conflict, between the army of the Archduke, and that of Maſſena. It is true, both ancient and modern hiſtory furniſh, alas! examples of battles as important, of engagements as bloody, and of manœuvres as maſterly as theſe; but never at any period, were ſo many and ſuch great objects brought into action together. For, in one vaſt extended ſpace, the ſame battle laſted nineteen days; for ſuch is the denomination which ought to be given to thoſe engagements, ſo connected with each other, that the ſtrongeſt poſitions were only poſts or points of a general line, and which were all attacked and defended at the ſame time; continually forced marches, unceaſing engagements, dreadful conflicts, the duration of which is not to be reckoned by hours, but by whole days, and by numbers of days together!

The attention of Europe was turned to this part of the great theatre, on which great and unexpected changes were continually taking place, from events no leſs important.

It

It appears that the principal part of the plan concerted between the Archduke and General Suwarrow was, to cut off ſucceſſively the communications of the two French armies of Switzerland and Italy, and to open, in the ſpeedieſt manner poſſible, the communication between the two Imperial armies, by the conqueſt of the north of Italy, the Milaneſe and Piedmont. It has been remarked with what ardour and conſtancy theſe two Generals alternately detached troops, the one from his right in Italy, and the other from his left in Switzerland, to ſupport the continual attacks of the corps of General Bellegarde, whoſe aim it was to diſlodge the French from the whole chain of the Rhaetian Alps to St. Gothard, which operation became more difficult from the ſtubborn reſiſtance, and the active and ſkilful war the French Generals Lecourbe, De Solles, and Loiſon, waged againſt him.—But alas, the life of man, in theſe fierce conteſts, ſeems to have been utterly diſregarded!

Moreau, with all his ſkill in military manœuvres, in which he was a great maſter, found himſelf too weak to maintain a line of defence from Mount St. Gothard to the ſea, parallel to the attacks made againſt him, had been compelled to abandon both this great ſupport on his left, and his communications with Maſſena, after receiving by Switzerland all the reinforcements which he could have expected in the difficult ſituation in which Maſſena found himſelf: thus ſituated, he fell back on his right, to cover, with what forces he had left, the Ligurian republic, and to preſerve, untouched, the barrier of the Appenines, ſo as to give Macdonald the means of effectuating a retreat.

Suwarrow, by taking poſſeſſion, with his main army, of the interval which Moreau was forced to abandon, by keeping up continual attacks, and a war of poſts in the paſſes of Switzerland, and by determining to complete the conqueſt of Piedmont by the taking of Turin, which the Ruſſian general had not been able to penetrate, ſerved the views of Moreau to their full extent.

Suwarrow

Suwarrow had manœuvred, with ſo little military knowledge, his vaſt army, that he could neither ſurround Moreau, diſlodge him from the Appenines, nor collect a ſufficient force in Upper Tuſcany, to take the offenſive againſt the French diviſions, ſucceſſively augmented by the vanguards of Macdonald. Every retrograde march by which Moreau had fallen back to the French frontiers, would have doubled the ſpace which his colleague had to meaſure. Even as he was ſituated, Moreau's camp at Coni was nearly fifty leagues from Macdonald's advanced poſt on the frontiers of Tuſcany; at the ſame time he drew as near as he could towards the French frontiers, in order to favour the arrival of the feeble reinforcements which came to him by the Col de Tende.

From this place he detached a diviſion, under General Victor, to croſs the Ligurian republic, to join the army of Naples, to put Macdonald in a ſituation to act on the offenſive, and to open the frontier paſſes, ſo as to reach Genoa. The French had retaken Mondovi, and blocked up Ceva; but General Vukaſſovich who had poſſeſſion of Carmagnole, Alba, and Cheraſco, diſengaged thoſe two places. Moreau, by thoſe manœuvres at Coni, drew off as much as lay in his power, the attention and principal forces of the allied army.

The commander in chief of the allied army, after having taken Turin, had ſent the principal diviſions of his army into the valleys of Suſa, Morienne, Auſt, and Lucerne, where the Vaudois had taken arms in favour of the French, raiſing alarm on the old frontier of France, and threatening to open an immediate paſſage acroſs the Alps, and to turn by the department of Mount Blanc, the laſt line of defence in Switzerland. The menace and the alarm were equally vain.

Moreau's poſition on the flanks of the Ruſſian army, which their commander had neither been able to foreſee nor prevent, and a French army in his rear, rendered every further progreſs impracticable. Suwarrow had hoped to keep Moreau continually in his front, and

and imagined that he ſhould thereby have prevented the junction with Macdonald more eaſily, than if he had ſtopt his purſuit, and taken his poſition at the heights of Genoa, where, however, it is probable, he would more readily have accompliſhed his purpoſe.

Suwarrow, having, in the manner above related, diſpoſed of part of his forces, marched in perſon againſt Moreau, who, ſtraitened in his poſitions, after leaving a ſtrong garriſon in Coni, withdrew to the Col de Tende, communicating with this place. The other principal paſſes of the Alps, Mount Cenis, the paſs of Suſa, and the little St. Bernard, were put in a reſpectable ſtate of defence; and neither at Briancon, nor any other part of the frontier, were there any bodies of French troops conſiderable enough to operate any of thoſe diverſions, which, as the French army was ſituated, were as eaſy as they might have been uſeful.

General Hantrailles, whoſe diviſion had been deſtined by Maſſena to reinforce Moreau's left, after reducing the inſurgents, had limited his operations to the taking a poſition in the Upper Vallais, not daring to hazard a deſcent towards Italy. The ſieges of Tortona, Aleſſandria, and Turin, were puſhed on, in the mean while, with great vigour.

The Archduke, ſeeing himſelf maſter of St. Gothard, and having nothing to fear from his left, detached General Bellegarde to join the army of Italy, with the greateſt part of his diviſion, while the remainder, under the command of General Haddick, took poſitions at Domo d'Oſſola, with the view of giving aſſiſtance to the army of Italy, or croſſing the mountains into Switzerland, according to circumſtances. Bellegarde, with eighteen battalions, and 3,500 horſe, paſſed through Milan (June 6th), and marched to Tortona. Macdonald, as has been obſerved, had arrived at Florence (May 24th) with his army, the effective force of which it is difficult to determine after ſuch long marches, and joined the troops which occupied Tuſcany; and it may

may be conjectured, with the corps of General Montrichard, he had nearly 30,000 men, and that the force of his army might amount to 40,000 effective when he had aſſembled the garriſons, and when General Victor had joined him with the whole of his diviſion; a more conſiderable force than this was ſcarcely poſſible, after garriſoning Fort St. Elmo, Capua, Gaeta, Rome, Civita Vecchia, Ancona, and ſome other poſts neceſſary to cover his retreat. He had left the greater part of his baggage at Rome, Viterbo, and Romiglione, in order to accelerate his march.

The firſt care of General Macdonald, in entering Tuſcany, was to clear the paſſes on each ſide of the Appenines. General Ott had gained poſſeſſion of the important poſt of Pontremoli in the Appenines, on the extreme frontier of Tuſcany and the Ligurian republic, and the point of communication between both, which he had ſtrongly fortified. General Kray was at Catellucio, from whence he was ſuperintending the blockade of Mantua, and preſſing the evacuation of the Bolognefe, where the reſiſtance of the French had ſo effectually covered the retreat of the army of Naples. The Imperialiſts had driven them from the poſts of Ferli and Cervia, ſurpriſed Fort Lago, between Ravenna and Bologna, taken poſſeſſion of Ceſena and Rimini, and were beſieging Fort Urbin. Notwithſtanding, however, the reinforcements of General Kray, who had left no more than twenty battalions and a few ſquadrons before Mantua, the diviſion of General Ott encamped between Parma and Pontremoli, and thoſe of Hohenzollern and Klenau were too weak to enter Tuſcany and act on the offenſive.

General Macdonald ſtrengthened at firſt his right wing, commanded by general Montrichard, who, after detaching the brigade of General Clauzel to occupy Bologna, repulſed General Klenau, and raiſed the ſiege of Fort Urbin; the left wing formed the diviſion of General Dombrowſky, and the Poliſh legion had orders to march upon Sarzana, Pontremoli, and retake this

this laſt poſt from the Imperialiſts.—Macdonald left General Ruſca's diviſion at Florence, which joined him at a later period, and transferred his head-quarters to Lucca, where we find him at the beginning of June: from that moment he could communicate freely with Genoa, become acquainted with the true poſition of the allies, and combine a plan of operation with general Moreau. He might, undoubtedly have filed off by Saranza and Spezzia, and entered by the river di Levante; but independently of this paſſage being held to be impracticable for artillery, he found himſelf in a more favourable ſituation than he could have hoped for, and enabled even to act on the offenſive beyond the Appenines, and open a ſcene altogether new and unexpected. This detailed account of the poſitions and poſts occupied by both armies, is neceſſary, in order to comprehend that ſingular and alternate intermingling of the armies between the right ſide of the Po and the ſea, from the ſource to the mouth of this river; and without this explanation, the extraordinary and precipitate marches, the daring manœuvres and deciſive actions which follow, would be almoſt unintelligible.

The French commander had taken a poſition at the Col de Tende; and his army, reduced to about 15,000 men, after he had detached the diviſion under General Victor, was ſtrengthened by a few battalions, which luckily reached him by the way of Nice: theſe he ſent by Oneglio to Genoa, and, filing off himſelf by his right, entered the Ligurian republic, covering his left flank with the Appenine mountains, of which he held all the paſſes, and taking advantageous poſitions at ſome leagues from Savona, towards the ſources, and at the head of the valley of Tanaro. He affected to have no other deſign than that of receiving reinforcements and ſuccours by the ſea, and to wait, without changing his poſition, the arrival of the army of Naples in the Ligurian republic.

A report from General Melas, who was obſerving his motions, proves, that the allies did not ſuppoſe he had any other project; while Moreau, far from concealing his march, endeavoured to draw the attention of Suwarrow; and as he was within reach of Montferrat, and could march to Aleſſandria, if he received ſufficient reinforcements, he did not fail to magnify the number and importance of his forces; the great movement of troops in ſtraitened poſitions, and on a ſingle way of communication, contributed, no doubt, to give credit to the falſe report which he cauſed to be ſpread, of the landing of 15,000 men, tranſported by the fleet of Toulon to the poſt of Vado; the vehicles of public intelligence were full of this circumſtance, the movements were artfully and plauſibly given, together with the ſucceſſive appearance of the French and Engliſh ſquadrons.

The falſehood of this fable was not detected till Moreau had arrived at Genoa with an army of about 18,000 men, which was ſtrengthened with the whole of the French and Ligurian troops, under the command of General Perignan; he raiſed alſo the courage and confidence of the French party by a proclamation, and diſpoſed himſelf to ſecond, by a diverſion of the Scrivia, the movements which had been concerted with Macdonald; their plan was vaſt; it tended to nothing inferior than to raiſe the ſiege of Mantua, force Kray to fall back on the Adige, to unblockade the citadels of Tortona and Aleſſandria, re-unite the two armies, and march againſt Suwarrow, with ſuperior forces; and however extraordinary ſuch a project might appear, after the multiplied reverſes ſuſtained by the French, and ſtill riſing ſuperior to them, there was in the eyes of military men nothing chimercial or merely ideal. General Macdonald left the camp of San Pellegrino, near Piſtoia, (June 8th) with his main army, and marched on to Modena: Generals Dombrowſky and victor, whoſe diviſions formed the left, marched the firſt from Arezzo, and the latter from Pontremoli upon Reggio.

The

The diviſions of Montrichard and Ruſca, which formed the right, marched from Bologna and Caſtelfranco: Montrichard had already forced General Klenau to raiſe the bockade of Fort Urbin, after two very warm engagements. Theſe two diviſions had orders to turn Modena, and to paſs the Tanaro between this city and the Po. The vanguard of the centre, commanded by General Olivier, came up with the firſt poſts of General Hohenzollern, and drove them back to within two miles of Modena; the next day, the French column having made near advances, a very ſmart ſkirmiſh took place between the cavalry, which the two Generals had ſent forwards to cover the reconnoitering parties: the Auſtrian cavalry was at firſt driven back, but was ſupported by the regiment of Preiſs, who charged the French cavalry with the bayonet. Hohenzollern repulſed this firſt attack, maintained his poſition at Saciolo, and ſecured, by different poſts, his communication with Reggio. The next day, Macdonald made another attack, when a very bloody engagement took place, the cavalry and infantry mingling together. Macdonald was wounded in this battle, and General Foreſt was killed; but the Auſtrians were forced to abandon Modena, which was taken and given up to pillage. The poſt on the left ſide of the Secchio, was in poſſeſſion of the French. Hohenzollern was cut off from Reggio. The firmneſs with which the poſts and paſſages on the Tanaro, were defended againſt the two French diviſions, which came from the ſide of Bologna, favoured his retreat on Mirandola. The regiment of Prieſs, which formed the rearguard, and which, though ſeveral times ſurrounded, had cut its way through, was now almoſt entirely deſtroyed.

Theſe movements and operations obliged General Klenau to fall back on Ferrara; Kray, who had already drawn off the artillery with which he beſieged Mantua, broke down the bridges of Caſal, Maggoire, and every other bridge on the Po, and poſted himſelf on the left ſide with 10,000 men, and ſome thouſands

ſands of armed peaſants to hinder the paſſage of the river, and cover the blockade of Mantua. Whether theſe diſpoſitions made by General Kray, the want of pontoons, and the increaſe of the river, ſwoln by the rains, hindered Macdonald from executing the project imputed to him of relieving Mantua, or whether he had already fulfilled his intention, in driving acroſs the Po an obſtacle which might have impeded his progreſs, by attacking his rearguard, whilſt he purſued his route along the Po to Voghera and Tortona, where he was to join General Moreau, he marched with the whole of his army upon the Reggio, and (June 14th) entered Parma, and the day following Piacenza, where he aſſembled his army, and commenced his attacks upon the citadel.

General Ott, who had only ſeven or eight thouſand men, had retreated before the vanguard of Macdonald, waiting the reinforcements to be ſent him by General Melas. This officer, being fully appriſed of Moreau's intention, had marched upon Aleſſandria: General Bellegarde came up alſo at the ſame time with his diviſion; while Suwarrow, who was vigorouſly preſſing the ſiege of the citadel of Turin, and threatening to ſtorm it, having been informed by General Kray of the ſucceſs and march of Macdonald, left General Kaim to continue the ſiege, and haſtened away with all the troops he could collect. General Vukaſſovich, who was ſtationed with his vanguard between Cevi and Mondovi, received orders to haraſs Moreau's rear, and detach a corps upon Ormea, on the road to Oneglia.

Nearly the whole of the armies of the allies were now aſſembled between Tortona and Piacenza, almoſt in the ſame poſition which they occupied ſix weeks before, and for the ſame object, to prevent the junction of the two French armies; there was not a ſingle manœuvre, nor a ſingle ſtep to be delayed or loſt; an hour's delay, during all theſe forced marches, ſecured victory to the French generals.

Victor

Victor had (June 17th) joined Macdonald, who now marched forward from Piacenza upon St. Giovanni, a village at ſix miles diſtance, on the left ſide of the little river of Fidone, behind which General Ott had retreated; his advanced poſts on the Trebia having alſo fallen back: General Melas came up to his aſſiſtance at the beginning of the action with his vanguard. Macdonald, who had diſpatched a detachment on the road of the caſtle of St. Giovanni, endeavoured with his right wing to detach the left of the Imperialiſts, and to take poſſeſſion of the road to Pavia on the Po, in order to ſurround the centre of the poſition of General Melas, who had taken the command, and cut off the communication with the forces which followed him. This firſt attack was repulſed by the Auſtrians: Ott's diviſion, and a part of General Frolich's, maintained their poſition till the arrival of Suwarrow with a ſtrong advanced guard of Ruſſians; the engagement then became general and laſted till night, when the French withdrew to their poſitions between Fidone and the Trebia.

Suwarrow, on the day following, aſſembled all his troops, and took meaſures for a deciſive engagement. Macdonald alſo made preparations, ranging his army in a line of battle, on the left ſide of the Trebia. The allies formed four columns; the firſt, or that part of the left wing on the ſide of the Po, was to march by Calendano, upon Ponte di Mora; the ſecond followed the road on the right of Piacenza; the third marched upon Vaccari—theſe three columns were compoſed of Ruſſian troops; the fourth on Ripalta and San Georgio, deſtined to turn the left of the French, was formed of the diviſions of Ott and Frolich. Theſe diſpoſitions, and the neceſſity of ſuffering the troops to breathe, retarded the attack till five in the evening: as ſoon as the columns came up, notwithſtanding the difficulty of the ground before the French line, there were no other manœuvres than a furious ſhock on the whole front of the two armies. The French were beaten, and

and loſt this ſecond battle, after an obſtinate reſiſtance, and much bloodſhed on both ſides.

Macdonald, nevertheleſs, did not retreat to Piacenza, but withdrew behind the right ſide of the Trebia, meditating another effort againſt the troops of Suwarrow, whoſe infantry, particularly, was borne down by fatigue. The next day, therefore, while the allies thought him in full retreat, Macdonald attacked them, in his turn, with furious impetuoſity. He at firſt repulſed all the advanced poſts on the Trebia, ſent acroſs the Po one of his columns, at the ſame time that another paſſed the Trebia to turn the right flank of Suwarrow, whoſe troops were almoſt ſurpriſed. General Melas ſuſtained the firſt attacks, with the Auſtrian cavalry; the carnage was horrible, and all the country, from Giovanni, to Piacenza, between the Fidone and the Trebia, was ſtrewed with the dead: This latter river was choked up with corpſes! The Poliſh legion, under Dombrowſki, ſurrounded by Ruſſians, formed themſelves into a ſquare battalion, defended themſelves with deſperation, and were almoſt entirely deſtroyed. Macdonald, after diſplaying the moſt undaunted courage, was obliged to re-paſs the Trebia. Suwarrow being complimented by his officers and attendants on his victory, he, viewing the field ſtrewed with his beſt troops, and his ranks dreadfully thinned, is ſaid, after caſting a diſdainful look at the flatterers, to have anſwered in the words of Pyrrhus of old—"Victory! another ſuch victory, and we are ruined."

Three days, ſucceſſively, was the duration of this bloody and deſtructive combat; and on the ſucceeding night, Macdonald retreated to Pincenza, which he evacuated the next day, obliged to abandon 3,000 men, who were wounded, among whom were the four Generals, Ruſca, Salm, Olivier, and Chambran. Macdonald, who had himſelf received ſeveral wounds, as had alſo General Victor, made his retreat in good order in two columns, of which one followed the great road of Parma, and the other the foot of the mountains. He pretended

pretended to be directing his march upon Modena, and to be returning to his camp at Piſtoia; but he took poſts at Fornovo, aſcending the valley of Tanaro, and took the road of Seſtri, to enter into the Ligurian republic, and effect his junction with Moreau. Generals Ott, Klenau, and Hohenzollern, whoſe corps he had diſperſed in his march upon Piacenza, united at Parma, and went in purſuit of him.

The commander of the allies, by the quickneſs of his march, and his victory at St. Giovanni, had repaired the fault of having divided his forces by inſulated operations, which gave Macdonald time almoſt to finiſh the moſt difficult of retreats, and to reach, without obſtacle, the places, poſitions, and reinforcements, which had doubled his means. It was a premeditated deſign on the part of Suwarrow: it may be ſaid that fortune juſtified his temerity; for it is evident, that with leſs activity, and without this extraordinary march, the combinations of the two French generals did not leave him the chance of ſucceſs; he would have found them with their forces united at Voghera, where he could not have attacked them without hazarding the fate of his whole army. In fact, while he was attacking, with the whole of his forces, Macdonald's army in Trebia, Moreau, after having marched a ſtrong detachment upon Bobbio, commanded by General Lapoype, ſallies forth from Genoa, as from an entrenched camp, with an army, reinforced, and full of ſpirits, conſiſting of about 25,000 men, and marched by Bocchetta, Gavi, and Novi, upon Tortona. The Auſtrian diviſions under General Bellegarde, were attacked and driven from their poſitions, at St. Guiliano, Caſſini, Grando, and Spinetta, and forced precipitately to retreat acroſs the Bormida. Among the advantages of this victory was the raiſing of the blockade of Tortona. Suwarrow, following up his victory at St. Giovanni, had continued to purſue Macdonald, which he entruſted to General Ott, and departed with the ſtrongeſt part of his army to meet Moreau, and ſtop his

his progreſs. This countermarch was not leſs rapid than the preceding. It was while he was on his return, that Suwarrow received news of the ſurrender of the citadel of Turin, againſt which batteries of 300 pieces of artillery had been erected, and plied ſo briſkly, that in two days, the fire of the beſieged was ſilenced, a great number of officers of artillery and cannoneers killed, and magazines deſtroyed. The commander, Fiorella, demanded a capitulation, and obtained terms ſimilar to thoſe which had taken place at Milan and Ferrara. This unexpected event was at this moment of ſo much the greater importance to the allies, as the corps of General Kaim, now free, was already on foot to join the grand army. The efforts and activity in the defence, on the part of the French generals, who had not as yet received the reinforcements which they expected from France, engaged Suwarrow to preſs the rallying of his troops in every quarter. General Vukaſſovich had orders to bring nearer the main body the column of Ruſſian auxiliaries, newly arrived on the Adige; in ſhort, the army which was ſlowly forming at Naples, and which had only a few inſulated poſts before it, occupied by Macdonald's rearguard, was ſummoned to haſten with all poſſible ſpeed to the north of Italy. Suwarrow's army, reinforced by the corps under General Haddick, amounted to 60,000 men. Moreau, after another engagement (June 25th) with Bellegarde and Kaim, having an army not amounting to the one third of the allies, was obliged to fall back on Genoa.

Thus, at the end of June, the allied forces were maſters of almoſt the whole of Italy, and of nearly half of the Helvetic republic, when a kind of involuntary truce, or rather ſuſpenſion of carnage, took place on both ſides the Alps, while both armies waited for reinforcements to begin anew their labours of death!

It is painful to humanity to obſerve, that the waſte of life in this ſhort campaign, of four months, has been already ſtated, as much more frightful than ever has been

been known in any modern war. It is, indeed, extremely difficult to appretiate exactly the loſſes of each party, from the continual exaggerations of the reſpective reporters, who always aggrandize the loſs of the enemy, and, in many caſes, ſtate incredible diminutions of their own.

Italy has, from the remoteſt period of its hiſtory, been the principal ſlaughter-houſe of mankind; but hiſtory furniſhes no example where the contending parties have been ſo numerous and ſo varied as the preſent. Engliſh, Germans, Turks, Ruſſians, French, Greeks, Italians, and Poles; people of different languages, oppoſite cuſtoms, and moſt hoſtile faith, have met on this theatre of war. Intereſts the moſt adverſe, and ſentiments the moſt diſcordant, have joined in friendly alliance againſt one powerful, but obnoxious object,—the French republic; and theſe regions, where nature has been ſo laviſh of her favours, and whoſe voluptuous inhabitants had been effeminated by the arts, became at once the theatre of deſolation, and all the miſeries, miſchiefs, and horrors of war, the greateſt of all human calamities whatever. Very different were theſe recent conflicts to thoſe which were carried on in that enchanting country previous to the reign of Charles V. Emperor of Germany; they were then only, as an elegant hiſtorian (Dr. Robertſon) terms them, "mock engagements, ſportive combats, and bloodleſs achievements." To give poſterity ſome idea of the havoc of the human kind, by the three grand contending powers, we ſhall juſt obſerve, that although it may be difficult to make an accurate valuation of the diminution of the human ſpecies, in this long battle (as we may juſtly term it), of ſo ſhort a campaign; yet, in taking for a baſis the loſſes which have been confirmed by the official reports of both parties, making due diminution even upon theſe verified ſtatements, and enumerating in this loſs only half of the number of wounded who periſhed in hoſpitals, or who were rendered unfit for ſervice, uſeleſs to themſelves,

ſelves, and a burden to their countries, which cannot be termed an exaggerated calculation, a probable and approximated valuation may be made of the loſſes ſuſtained by the three principal actors in this tragical ſcene.

In Voralberg, at the attack of Feldkirch, in the Griſons, and in the mountains of the Tyrol, it is calculated that there periſhed 22,500 men; on the Danube, 13,000: on the paſſage of the Rhine by the Auſtrians, and the taking of Zurich, 13,500 men; and in Italy, 64,000. In ſubtracting this number from the forces which the belligerent powers brought into the field, at the opening of the campaign, ſtated to amount to 360 or 370,000 men, and eſtimating the loſſes occaſioned by ſickneſs, and priſoners unexchanged, it will be found that the armies were diminiſhed, in the ſpace of four months, more than half of their effective forces. It appears certain, at leaſt, that from the opening of the campaign to this period, when ſcarcely half of the operations had been accompliſhed, nearly one third of the troops employed had been deſtroyed, or mutilated; and in this melancholy picture, no eſtimation is made of the expedition into Egypt, nor of the winter campaign, when the King of Naples invaded the Roman territory, and had taken refuge in Sicily, after looſing his own.

While theſe fierce conflicts were carrying on in Italy with ſuch ſanguinary hoſtility, the combined fleets of France and Spain once more ventured to make their appearance in the Mediterranean. There were no objects more fitted to confound the deſigns and calculations of men, who affect to rule the deſtinies of nations, than events ſo contradictory, and diſtant from all probable calculation. The armies of the French republic had now met with reverſes as conſtant, and as great, as had been the moſt ſplendid career of their victories; the republic had loſt, not only its ſuperiority of numbers, but the means of raiſing armies equal to thoſe of its enemies. On the ocean, where no one would have con-

conjectured that either France or Spain would have hazarded a ſquadron, where all the objects of war ſeemed bounded on the part of England to the eaſy obſervation of the wrecks of the fleets of three maritime powers, blocked up in ports, cut off from each other by nature, and as it were by the ſituation of England, a combined French and Spaniſh fleet appears on a ſudden acting on the offenſive, the ſtrongeſt from its number and the rate of its veſſels that had kept the ſea ſince the re-union, when they menaced the Engliſh coaſt.

At the beginning of the Spring, the Engliſh had not more than twelve or fifteen veſſels in the Mediterranean; all the reſt of their vaſt naval force was employed, or deſtined for the coaſts of the Ocean. There was not a port which was not cloſely blocked up; not a road on the eaſtern coaſt of the channel which was not guarded. In a ſtate of ſuch vaſt ſuperiority, opinion is juſtly accounted a real and effective force; for it always magnifies the means of the ſtronger party, and depreſſes thoſe of the weaker. No eſtimation was ſcarcely made of the wrecks of the Dutch navy, which had eſcaped Admiral Duncan. The Breſt fleet, weakened by partial loſſes, ſeemed ſo unprovided, that if any opportunity had offered for its leaving the port, it dared not run the hazard. It was, beſides, conſtantly watched by Lord Bridport with a fleet, the force of which was varied according to circumſtances. In ſhort, all Europe was convinced, that the Spaniards beheld with no pain a ſtate of things which reduced them to a kind of neutrality, or rather armiſtice; and which, without wanting in their engagements to their allies the French republic, left them the hope of preſerving their marine, at the expenſive price, however, of the annihilation of their commerce, and of the interruption of their communications with their extenſive colonies. The manœuvres of Lord St. Vincent, the alternate diminution and complement of his fleet, ſerved alſo to give credit to this opinion.

This

This determined reſolution of the Britiſh miniſtry to maintain a chain of cruizers around the ſhores and rocks of Holland, France, and Spain, kept the fleets in their uſual ſtations. But it is well known that theſe long cruizes with ſquadrons, make a more rapid conſumption of veſſels, and weaken the crews more, than even engagements and diſtant expeditions. The activity of the dock-yards was, however, equal to theſe cauſes of deſtruction; and already, before the ſeaſon for conſtantly keeping the ſea approached, new ſquadrons were ready to reinforce, or replace thoſe who had held their ſtations during a very rigorous winter.

The French, on their ſide, redoubled their exertions, to put what remained of their marine in motion. They were ambitious to appear again at ſea; to attempt to diſengage their allies; to try fortune once more, either by an engagement, or an unexpected expedition. All the veſſels at Breſt, for this purpoſe, that could keep the ſea, were put in commiſſion; the difficulties of fitting out ſuch an armament, and the empty ſtate of the arſenals, ſo long deprived of the convoys of the north, led the Engliſh miniſtry into a miſtake reſpecting the extent and progreſs of this armament. Bruix, the miniſter of the French marine, viſited Breſt in perſon, to haſten the preparations of the fleet; and the more anxiety and publicity which he ſhewed in his operations, the leſs credit was given to the actual forwardneſs of the expedition. At the moment that it was judged impoſſible, he hoiſted his flag, as an Admiral, on board the Ocean of 120 guns, three other ſhips of 110, and twenty-one of 74, completely armed, having their complements and troops for landing, eight frigates, and two ſloops, were ready for ſailing. A favourable wind, which ſent the Engliſh ſquadron to ſea, afforded the French admiral an opportunity of ſlipping out (April 26th), and ſteering his courſe towards the Bay of Biſcay.

Next day, Lord Bridport, who commanded the Britiſh ſquadron, conſiſting of only ſixteen ſail of the line, took his ſtation again before Breſt, when he perceived

ceived that the French fleet had eſcaped his vigilance. He beat about in vain to diſcover the track they had taken; the fog which had concealed from him their motions, did not permit him to make longer reſearches, and he ſet ſail for the coaſt of Ireland.

The news of ſo unexpected a manœuvre in the French fleet, ſoon reached England. It was alſo known that Lord Bridport had taken care to cover the point which was moſt menaced, to ward off the moſt dangerous blow that could be ſtruck at this period againſt Britain, and that he was then cruizing off Cape Clear, on the ſouth of Ireland. Never, in any of the preceding wars, was there ſuch an opportunity for trying the reſources of the Engliſh marine, and the perfection of the ſprings of this vaſt machine; a few days were ſufficient to reinforce, and almoſt double the ſtationary fleets already mentioned. The momentary ſurpriſe excited by this bold manœuvre of the French, made no change in the general plan. Immediately upon the news arriving at the Admiralty, fourteen ſail of the line left Plymouth and Spithead; the greater part were deſtined to reinforce Lord Bridport's ſquadron, who, by the 10th of May, had twenty-four ſhips of the line, and ſix frigates; and was a few days after joined by Admiral Collingwood. A ſquadron of five ſail of the line, and three frigates, under the orders of Vice-admiral Whitſhed, was deſtined to reinforce the fleet of Lord St. Vincent before Cadiz. Vice-admiral Dixon left Yarmouth, with five ſail of the line, to reinforce the ſquadrons cruizing off the mouth of the Texel; and Lord Duncan took the command of this fleet, to which were added five Ruſſian ſhips of war, under the orders of Admiral Tate. Mackaroff, the Ruſſian admiral, left Sheerneſs with four ſail of the line for the Mediterranean. Within a fortnight, therefore, after the ſailing of the Breſt fleet, Lord Bridport could rally at Cape Clear thirty ſail of the line; Lord Duncan blocked up the Dutch fleet in the Texel with twenty-two ſail; as the Dutch fleet had been augmented

mented to fifteen ſhips of war, and threatened to ſail; and Lord St. Vincent, with the reinforcements from Admirals Whitſhed and Mackaroff, had his fleet augmented to full thirty ſail.

Although no certain news had as yet been received in England of the route and deſtination of the French fleet, yet every meaſure was taken, that, wherever it had gone, it ſhould meet on no tack with a force inferior; and, on the coaſt of Ireland, with forces more than equal. The French admiral, as if conſcious of thoſe diſpoſitions, had attempted to ſtrengthen his fleet with a ſquadron of ſix ſail of Spaniſh ſhips of the line from Ferrol; but this junction, ſo difficult at all times in the Bay of Biſcay, did not take place; and the Spaniſh ſquadron of five ſhips of the line, one frigate, and 3,000 troops, anchored at the Iſle of Aix (May 7th).

Amidſt this prodigious diſplay of Britiſh marine force, and, indeed, of all the means of navigation, the French fleet, which had been ſo favoured by the winds as to enter the Mediterranean, and which was conſidered as having taken ſhelter there, and, if not as diſtant, ſtill more ſeparated from the Spaniards than it was at Breſt, riſks the ſea, appears on the coaſt of Italy, and once again eſcaping the vigilance, and mocking the combinations of the Engliſh admirals, goes and joins at Carthagena the Spaniſh fleet, which Admiral Maſſaredo had conducted thither under favour of the movement of that of Breſt, which at that time fixed the principal attention of Lord Keith. The winds having favoured this bold manœuvre, the two fleets ſailed from Carthagena, paſſed the Straits, and had anchored in the road of Cadiz, before the Engliſh admiral had any certain knowledge of its movements, or of its junction with the Spaniſh; and by the time he had recalled his cruizers, and taken advantage of the ſame wind to paſs the Straits, the combined fleet, taking with it the French ſhip of war, the Cenſeur, and a few other Spaniſh veſſels, left Cadiz, making a total of forty-

forty-ſeven ſail of the line (July 21ſt), and a few days after anchored within the fortified harbour of Breſt.

It muſt be owned that this expedition had ſomething in it bold and daring; but, alas, the expenditure of ſo many millions, which their exhauſted treaſury could ill afford, for a naval parade, when the ſame money otherwiſe expended, might have ſaved both Switzerland and Italy, afforded an additional inſtance of the extravagance and folly of the French directory. No doubt had been entertained by the intelligent citizens of France, on the firſt ſailing of this fleet, that the dexterity which had been diſplayed in the outſet, would have terminated in ſome ſplended and deciſive ſtroke; either the defeat and capture of Lord St. Vincent's fleet before Cadiz, the deſtruction of the Engliſh and Ruſſian ſhips before Palermo, or the affording ſuch effective aſſiſtance to the army of Italy as ſhould once more turn the tide of victory in favour of the French. Every one of theſe objects ſeemed to be eaſily attained, yet not one of them was executed or even attempted; and the French had the mortification of ſeeing their fleet return to Breſt idle, and inglorious, and becoming a ſubject of ridicule to all Europe. Yet it was a manœuvre highly advantageous to the Spaniards, as it brought along with it the fleet of that nation, to the mortification of the Engliſh, who, with double the number, might have been ſuppoſed able to have prevented both the junction and the arrival of this combined ſquadron.

Having given a pretty ample detail of the campaign, ſo full of great events, and ſo fatal to the French, we might naturally be led from the hiſtory of the internal affairs of the republic, to a ſurvey of its domeſtic ſituation, which, at the period to which we have brought its armies, ſeeking refuge in the mountains, from the purſuits of the conquerors, had undergone a conſiderable change. But as this might too juſtly be accounted a deviation from our ſubject, we ſhall refer our readers for information on that head to the full and accurate accounts given by the journaliſts of that eventful period in

in the French hiſtory. We ſhall juſt remark, that blame is generally attached to want of ſucceſs: and as almoſt the flower of the French armies having been cut to pieces, their brave and ſkilful officers being obliged to quit many a well fought field, the indignation of the French citizens knew no bounds; and they wiſhed for another Robeſpierre and another reign of terror to take ſummery vengeance on the criminal authors of the ruinous condition of their affairs at home and abroad. Sufficient is it for us to add, that, however unwilling, the directors were obliged to reſign their authority.

The overthrow of the directors was the ſignal of denunciation which fell faſt on the heads of their infamous agents. Duval, the miniſter of the police, was ſignalized as having been the creature of Merlin; and ſeveral acts of an arbitrary nature were cited againſt his adminiſtration. He voluntarily withdrew from his functions. But on the head of Sherrer the ex-miniſter of war, and ex-general of the army of Italy, the ſtorm of public indignation raged with unbounded fury. The table of the council was heaped with piles of accuſations againſt him, and he was inſtantly denounced by the legiſlature to the directory: but his accomplices in power were too numerous to lead him to apprehend puniſhment.

He dared for a long time the menaces of public vengeance; and withdrew rather from the fear of popular effervescence than dread of the law. The government, when they heard that he was fled, ſent to arreſt him. As every tongue was free, during the political Saturnalia, every truth was ſpoken, and not ſeldom more than the truth: but the whole of theſe accuſations were ſummed up in the report made by Francais de Nantes, in the name of the commiſſion of eleven, on the third day after this revolution, which preſented a ſtrong and well-drawn picture of the late directorial government. The ſame commiſſion propoſed to the council the project of a law, the various articles of which were a recapitulation of principles which ſeemed to have been forgotten

forgotten, corrections of abuſes of power, and the means of preventing ſuch from taking place in future.

But while the council were debating on articles to guard againſt the abuſes of power, the new directory were laudably employed in probing the wounds, and preſcribing remedies for the diſeaſes of the republic. The reſult of their diſcoveries was ſent to the council in a meſſage, which, contrary to the uſual mode, and notwithſtanding the reclamations of divers members, was ordered to be read in public. The meſſage contained a number of alarming truths.—The reader will not be diſpleaſed in ſeeing brought to light ſuch ſcenes of political villainy.

It ſtated, among other inſtances of the immediate danger of the country,—the removal of honeſt and wiſe men from almoſt every public function, which were filled with men ignorant or hoſtile to the republic;—every avenue to juſtice ſtopped up, or open only to corruption and violence;—the interior of the republic in a ſtate of diſorganization, a prey to ruffians, whoſe crimes remained, ſhamefully, unpuniſhed; the armies defeated, and, for want of recruits, almoſt in a ſtate of diſſolution; the public treaſury, from having been the private bank of intrigue and dilapidation, completely emptied;—the ordinary ſupplies inſufficient for the immenſe exigencies of the ſtate; and extraordinary means to be reſorted to in order to keep the political machine in motion. The directory, after deſcanting on theſe evils, and the urgency of repairing them, invited the council to adopt ſuch ſpeedy and effective meaſures as ſhould ward off from the political body the diſſolution with which it was threatened.

The council ſent the meſſage to the commiſſion of eleven, who had already prepared what appeared to them the moſt effective and inſtant remedies, and who propoſed a law to the aſſembly, the principal articles of which were, the levy of the conſcripts of every claſs from the age of twenty to that of twenty-five, who were immediately to be put into active ſervice,—a loan

of 100,000,000, to be raiſed on the richer claſſes of the citizens, the mortgage of which ſhould be the national domains yet unſold. Theſe propoſitions were followed by another addreſs to the French nation, inviting to co-operate with their repreſentatives in the work of national regeneration; and recapitulating the labours of the council for the laſt three weeks. This done, the commiſſion of eleven diſſolved itſelf.

The late directory, when they declared war in the month of March, had never thought it poſſible that the firſt reverſes, occaſioned by a preſumptuous ignorance of the real forces of the republic, would, in the ſpace of three months, draw on the loſs of all its conqueſts in Italy; and that the whole chain of the Great Alps, newly added to the natural defence of the frontier of France, would only weaken this defence, and engage the efforts of the coaleſced armies towards thoſe parts of this ſame frontier, where the danger would be the greateſt.

The two imperial courts, admitting that they had already fixed the baſis of their plans of operation, had not foreſeen that ſo vaſt a field would ſo ſoon be given up to them; or that, when the French generals and French troops were unable to keep it, they would have defended themſelves with ſo much addreſs and courage, and would have ſo perſeveringly prolonged a ſtruggle with forces ſo unequal. Neither of the parties had calculated their means or reſources, in ſo unexampled a waſte of men, horſes, and ſtores of every kind. The revolution in the directorial department might have been improved by the allies, and probably turned out more favourable than any other of their undertakings; but they were in no ſituation at that time to act on the offenſive, on any point. For, excepting the armies at the ſiege of Mantua, and thoſe of the Archduke and Maſſena, who were watching each other reciprocally, at the ſhort diſtance of a cannon-ſhot, all the reſt of the French and allies were in motion. Suwarrow had detached from his main army a ſtrong diviſion in purſuit

ſuit of Macdonald: united to the diviſions of Generals Bellegarde and Kaim, after the taking of Turin, this army formed a total of about 50,000 men, between Tortona and Aleſſandria, which they were now blocking up. About 20,000 men were employed near Coni, and in the upper valleys. The diviſion under General Haddick, at Milan, conſiſted of 12,000 men. The different diviſions, when returned from Tuſcany and Venice, made an addition of 25,000; the new auxiliary Ruſſian corps might be eſtimated at 8,000; and when Mantua fell, 25,000 troops, reinforced by thoſe of the Tyrol, would form another reinforcement; ſo that although theſe troops were thus diſperſed, and unprepared for any grand combination, nevertheleſs, about the middle of Auguſt, Suwarrow counted on 140,000 men, independent of Sardinian and Ciſalpine troops, the latter of whom had imitated the defection of La Hotze, and followed him to the ſiege of Ancona, not comprehending the aſſiſtance which might be given by the Engliſh and Neapolitans.

The troops under the orders of the Archduke, not including Suwarrow's army of obſervation, between the Danube and the frontier of the Tyrol, amounted to about 90,000 men. The Ruſſian forces on their march and in depot, amounted to about 45,000; ſo that the total of the allied forces, ready to act againſt the frontier of France, amounted, at the moſt moderate computation, to 300,000 effective troops.

The new government of France held forth this alarming picture of the dangers which threatened the republic, and which they neither palliated not concealed; nay, they rather ſeemed to exaggerate, and even to triumph in the evil,—ſeeking in its exceſs, motives for the violence of the remedies which they had already, and were ſtill going to prepare. The French armies had been dreadfully thinned, ſince the opening of the campaign.

Moreau's army in the Ligurian republic, joined to the wrecks of Macdonald's, was reduced to about 40 or 45,000

45,000 men; the body of troops which occupied the places, entrenchments, and paſſages of the frontiers, did not amount to more than 25,000; Maſſena's army was 60,000; the garriſons of Straſbourg, Mentz, and the different corps along the Rhine, were about 30,000; Brune had from about 8 to 10,000 in Holland; the troops at Breſt, and in the weſtern department, amounted to 25,000: ſo that the whole of the forces of the republic, in the month of July, did not exceed 195,000 men.

This calculation, apparently made out with fairneſs, not only arouſed the attention of the citizens in France, but determined the ſpeedy levy of the conſcription, and the reſolution of raiſing the army of the republic to the number of half a million of effective troops. This terrible mode of recruiting had ſucceeded in a ſituation as extreme as the preſent, and could only be attempted by ſimilar means, and in the agitation of a great criſis; but it was a daring experiment, particularly at this period, the reſult of which was fitted to confound all the calculations of political œconomy, to make an army of 250,900 men ſpring up on a ſudden, in the territory of France, after eight campaigns, and a waſte of more than a million of men in the prime of life, which new hoſt was to be at once equipped, armed, and fit for action.

Battalions to be formed in the departments was alſo reſorted to. The calculations which were officially preſented, ſtated the whole of the forces which the republic would have in pay, in the ſpace of three months, at upwards of 550,000 men. To render theſe forces effective without, and complete this riſing in a maſs, it was decreed to form anew the national guard, the moveable columns of which were to be employed in home ſervice, and to reinforce the garriſons on the frontiers. Such were the efforts made uſe of by the republic to balance the continually encreaſing forces of the coalition; but, as might be expected, a wide interval exiſted between the decree of government and the

the execution of theſe formidable projects. The conſideration of this eſtimate, this kind of general review leads inſenſibly to the melancholy reflection, that if the army of Bonaparte in Egypt and Syria, and that of the Turks, be added to the preceding enumeration of the French and allied forces,—if we reckon the troops embarked, and the crews of more than 400 ſhips of the line and frigates armed in the Ocean, the Mediterranean, and the Baltic, it will be found that, at the cloſe of this century, called the age of knowledge, at the end of this golden age, promiſed us by a vain philoſophy, more than *twelve hundred thouſand combatants are engaged in the work of mutual ſlaughter and of death*;—deſolating the faireſt domains in the world, and rending the air with the cries and lamentations of widows and of orphans!

The ſtudy of hiſtory, the deepeſt reſearches into the nature of men and of ſociety, the principles of government, the cultivation and progreſs of the arts, all the inventions of genius, all the diſcoveries of ſcience, all the perfected inſtruments of civilization, are, in the hands of the men of the 19th century, machines of war, and inſtruments of deſolation. It would ſeem as if men had laboured ſo long in multiplying their communications only to facilitate the art of deſtruction, and to add new furies to the horrors of war!

From this deviating reflection which can only ariſe in the breaſt of philanthropy, let us return to follow the warlike operations of the hoſtile armies.

We left General Macdonald making his retreat into Tuſcany, after the bloody battle near Piacenza, where 20,000 men had been killed and wounded. His retreat would have been extremely difficult, if Suwarrow had continued to preſs upon his rearguard with the whole of his forces, and had turned them on the ſide of the mountains, whilſt Generals Klenau and Hohenzollern, who had rallied between Reggio and Modena, had attacked it on the flank, and retarded their march; but the ſucceſs of the diverſion, operated by Moreau, had recalled

recalled Suwarrow, and the main body of his army, towards Aleſſandria, Macdonald retreated into Tuſcany, marching in two columns; one by the road of Modena, which he ſurpriſed, and the other by Fornovio. The right column threw reinforcements into Bologna, which being garriſoned chiefly by Ciſalpines continued to make a moſt ſpirited defence, and alſo into Fort Urbin; and whilſt Moreau ſupported, at Bobbio, the diviſion of General Lapoype, in order to protect the left of the army of Naples, Macdonald reſumed his former poſitions at Lucca and Piſtoia.

General Victor's diviſion, after aſcending the valley of the Taro, occupied, with that of Lapoype, the paſſes of the Appenines; from that moment the communication by the route called La Corniche, by Sarzana, and by La Spezza, were covered, and Macdonald had nothing to fear leſt this laſt outlet ſhould be ſhut againſt him.

Ott, Klenau, and Hohenzollern, ſoon perceived that the rearguards which Macdonald had left behind him were very weak; thoſe they purſued, and forced them to evacuate Modena and Bologna. Fort Urbin ſurrendered to General Ott at the end of a fortnight. Macdonald was unable to make any longer reſiſtance to the Imperial forces beyond the Appenines; the deſertion of the Ciſalpine general, La Hotze, having weakened his right, and the progreſs of the inſurgents of Arezzo, exciting the people of Florence, he determined to finiſh his retreat, and evacuate Tuſcany altogether. Though it was more than uncertain whether the artillery and baggage could be tranſported by ſea from Leghorn to Genoa, on account of the Engliſh ſquadrons cruizing before thoſe ports, Macdonald did not heſitate in attempting this deſperate meaſure, and from the firſt days of the month of July, he ſent off his column of artillery with a ſtrong eſcort which was deſtined to reinforce the garriſon of Leghorn. He left Florence (July 8th), broke up his camp at Piſtoia, marched towards Lucca with the reſt of his army, now reduced to

to about 13 or 14,000 men, and began to file off by Sarzana. This march was ſlow and painful; and it was only towards the end of the month, that the head of the column reached the environs of Genoa.

The allies immediately reinforced Tuſcany; and being united to the inſurgents of Arazzo, the maſs of which was encreaſed, ſo as to form a corps of 30,000 men, under the orders of General Inheranni. The advanced guard of General Klenau entered Florence (8th July,) when the people roſe, and, deſtroying every mark of the domination of the republic, re-eſtabliſhed the enſigns of the old government.

The garriſon of Leghorn, and that of Porto Ferrajo, formed the laſt rearguard, and retreated alſo by Sarzana. General D'Argubet, who had made preparations for a vigorous defence, and reinforced the garriſon of Fort d'Antigano, threatened by the inſurgents, received orders to evacuate Leghorn. He concluded a capitulation with the old governor, the Tuſcan general Lavillette, by which he ſecured the retreat of the garriſon of Porto Ferrajo, and the free return of the ſick. The evacuation was executed with order and fidelity; and the old adminiſtration was re-eſtabliſhed the ſame day. The laſt French troops evacuated Piſa and Lucca, and General Macdonald, forced to leave behind him, or deſtroy his heavy artillery, his camp equipage, and the remains of the rich ſpoils of Italy, finiſhed his retreat. This army, which after its re-union to the diviſions which occupied Tuſcany a month before, amounted to upwards of 30,000 men, was now reduced to nearly 18,000; but not one corps of this army, ſurrounded by ſuperior forces, and whoſe complete ruin ſeemed inevitable, had been forced to lay down its arms, neither on the field, nor in any poſt, unleſs it were in a few forts, ſuch as thoſe of Urbin, Sienna, and St. Leon, which ſurrendered only when their defence would be of no further utility.

General Suwarrow, who had joined Bellegarde between Tortona and Aleſſandria, called in the corps of Generals

Generals Kaim and Vukaſſovich, and marched towards Moreau, who, having fallen back on Novi, ſoon evacuated this poſt, and retreated by the Bochetta into the Ligurian territories.

Such was the termination of that ſeries of marches, manœuvres, and engagements, which, for ſix weeks paſt, had kept the troops on both ſides in continued action. Moreau reinforced his poſts at the outlets of the valleys, and had taken poſition at Sarena to ſecure his rear and his communication with Nice, waiting the arrival of the wrecks of Macdonald's army in this vaſt entrenched camp, too extenſive, poſſibly, for an army of 40,000 men, who were to occupy the extremities on the ſide of Tuſcany and France, but too circumſcribed from the want of reſources and the difficulty of communication.

The maſs of the army of the allies encamped on the river, at the entrance of the valley of Orbe, which poſition covered the attacks of Tortona and Aleſſandria: General Bellegarde, who, after the irruption of General Moreau, had been unable to carry on the blockade, and had limited himſelf to covering that of Aleſſandria, was charged with the regular ſiege of this laſt place, which Suwarrow, haſtened in proportion to its importance for the reſt of his operations. The firſt parallel being finiſhed (June 14th), and twenty-one batteries ready to open, the French commander, Gardanne, was ſummoned, and refuſed to ſurrender: ſix days after, not only was the ſecond parallel finiſhed, but the covered way was taken, lodgments made, ſaps carried to the foot of the ramparts, and batteries erected to open a breach. General Gardanne, judging it impoſſible to ſuſtain an aſſault, propoſed a capitulation which (July 22d) was accepted; and the garriſon, conſiſting of 2,600 men, remained priſoners of war. Suwarrow fixed his head-quarters in Aleſſandria, the conqueſt of which had coſt him dear in the loſs of General Chaſteler, the chief of his ſtaff, and whoſe activity and talents had been ſo eminently uſeful to him during the ſiege of Aleſſandria.

Aleſſandria. Moreau, who had not ſufficient forces to attempt the relief of the place, to complete his junction, extended his line to the frontier of France, without abandoning either Genoa or the Bochetta, nor the other paſſes of the Appenines. He fixed his headquarters at Cornegliano, and took theſe poſitions and poſts at Ultri, Savoni, Vado, and Loana, which had been occupied by the French army in 1796.

General Colli had been detached with a ſmall corps, and occupied an entrenched poſition between the Bochetta and Serra Valle. After having made theſe diſpoſitions which could alone ſecure the poſſeſſion of the Ligurian territory, and the ſucceſſive arrival of reinforcements, Moreau reſigned the command of the army to General Joubert.

Mean while a war of domeſtic factions was carried on in the French councils; but in the very heat of it, the French government met with as ſevere a blow as any it had ſuffered, in the loſs of the citadel of Mantua, which was juſtly accounted the firſt bulwark of Italy. Suwarrow, after the taking of Aleſſandria, had marched a part of his army anew into Piedmont, had inveſted Coni, attacked Feneſtrelles, and ſent General Haddick, with a corps of 12,000 men, up the valley of Auſt, to penetrate into the Vallais, as the former poſitions of this diviſion had become uſeleſs ſince the retreat of the French beyond the Appenines, and the arrival of the ſecond auxiliary Ruſſian corps. The column detached under the command of the Prince of Rohan, had not diſcontinued its ſkirmiſhes in the upper valleys, or ceaſed haraſſing the principal poſts of the French. This column, reinforced, undertook at length more ſerious enterpriſes, ſuch as that of the Little St. Bernard, which cauſed great alarm, and forced the French to keep conſiderable forces in theſe quarters. General Hatry, who commanded there, complained of the naked ſtate in which the important frontiers of Dauphiny were left; every thing indicated that the great exertion would be directed towards that

part, if once the French army ſhould be conſtrained to paſs the Var.

But the moſt ſingular advantage which the allies derived from the deciſive battle near Piacenza was, the undiſturbed ſtate in which General Kray's army was left to continue the ſiege of Mantua. To gain this important fortreſs occupied the whole attention of Suwarrow, in order that thereby he might juſtify his projects, rectify his plans of operation, and allow him to ſend as effective ſuccour to the Archduke, as that which he had received from him.

No means were left unemployed to haſten the ſurrender of Mantua; the number of artillery was augmented, near 600 pieces of battering cannon and mortars were deſtined for this ſiege; artillery, of a bore judged for a long time uſeleſs, was alſo tranſported thither. Two Auſtrian regiments, and the corps of Ruſſian artillery, reinforced the beſieging army. All the peaſants and other country people, forty miles round the city, were obliged to labour in their turns at the works.

The garriſon of this important place conſiſted of 10.000 men, under the command of General Latour Foiſſac, an engineer of talents, and who had ſerved under the old regime. General Kray attacked the city on the ſouthern ſide, and carried at firſt the outward poſts, ſuch as the Cereſe, the head of the bridge which covered the ſluice, and the communications with the works of the Fauxbourg du The, ſeparated from the main land by an arm of the Mincio. The trenches were opened oppoſite to this Fauxbourg during the night of the 13th and 14th of July, under favour, it is ſaid, of a kind of truce, during which the commander of the place celebrated the anniverſary of the French revolution. The fire from the town, which was very briſk when the opening of the trench was perceived, did not hinder the firſt parallel, and ſoon after the ſecond, to be formed and completed: all the

the batteries were finiſhed and mounted in leſs than one week.

This main attack was ſeconded by thoſe directed on the other forts, datached from the body of the place on this ſide the lake, ſuch as the horn-work of the gate Pradella, and Fort St. George, againſt which approaches were made at the ſame time. The principal ſluice having been broken, and the draining of the water having facilitated the works and the eſtabliſhment of new batteries, which were to protect the paſſage of Bajuolo, General Kray attacked the entrenchments in the dykes between Cereſe and the Fauxbourg, which were carried ſword in hand. The next day (July 26th) the French evacuated Fort St. George. The horn-work of the gate Pradella, which, from the opening of the third parallel at the fort of the glacis, they apprehended might be carried by ſtorm, was, after ſpiking the pieces, alſo abandoned. It was in this work that the allies lodged themſelves, from whence they commanded the body of the place; the garriſon was ſaid to be ſo weakened as to be ineffective for the ſervice; the greater part of the officers were in the hoſpitals; the batteries of Iſle du The were diſmounted; and the number of bombs which fell in this part of the work, rendered every manœuvre of the artillery, and every kind of defence, unavailing.

Thus ſituated, the commander accepted (on the 28th of July) the capitulation offered him by General Kray, and ſurrendered to him the keys of Mantua, which had been in the hands of the French ſince February, 1797.

Two days after, the garriſon marched out with the honours of war, by the citadel, and grounded their arms on the glacis. Conformably to the capitulation, this garriſon was to be eſcorted to the frontiers of France, and not to ſerve till exchanged. General Latour Foiſſac, and all his ſtaff, were detained priſoners, and conducted to Gratz, to remain three months, after which they

they were permitted to return into France on their parole, not to ſerve till they had been exchanged.

It may eaſily be imagined what impreſſions this diſaſtrous news, ſo unexpected, made on the minds of the people of France. That the ſtrongeſt bulwark of Italy had been ſurrendered by treachery, was univerſally believed in France; and in proportion to the conſequence of the place, was the indignation againſt the commander, who, they firmly believed, had traiterouſly ſurrendered it, as alſo againſt the late government, who had entruſted to a man, ſaid to be of ſuſpected character, a place of ſuch high conſequence and importance. The directory ordered a court-martial to be formed, to try Latour Foiſſac, as well as the commander of the citadel of Turin, who was likewiſe ſuſpected of treaſon. Of the importance of this ſurrender for the ulterior operations of the allies, a judgment may eaſily be formed. Italy almoſt entirely re-conquered,—for Rome and Ancona could not long reſiſt all the forces of the allies,—all their means, all their magazines, collected together at the moment of the arrival of the reinforcements, threw ſo great a weight into the balance, that nothing could compenſate to the republic the advantage of the diverſion cauſed by Mantua, which place had, in the preſent circumſtances, and in the general ſtate of affairs, almoſt an incalculable importance. As long as it occupied General Kray and his army, Suwarrow could not act with vigour either againſt Switzerland or Nice. The new plan of defence of the frontier of France was eſtabliſhed during this ſtate of ſuſpenſe and obſervation, to the advantage of the party inferior in number; and every day that it was prolonged was actively employed in repairing loſſes, and preparing new obſtacles to the great exertion, the general attack meditated by the allies. Suwarrow, by the fall of Mantua, regained the full liberty of his movements, and turned back to the ſimple combination of mutual and alternate ſuccour between the Archduke's army and his own. In ſhort, the fortreſs of Mantua, which was the trophy for General

neral Kray of the victory of Magnan, was at that time the moſt ſenſible loſs the French republic could have experienced.

While theſe important tranſactions were carrying on in Italy, no event of moment took place in Switzerland. The reſpective armies were ſo nearly balanced, that it was impoſſible to effect any thing great till the equilibrium was deſtroyed. After the dreadful actions which had taken place before Zurich, the Archduke and Maſſena did not know the whole force of their reſpective poſitions till they had mutually, but vainly, attempted to diſlodge their advanced guards,—the Archduke having attacked the poſition of Mount Albis without ſucceſs, and Maſſena, in his turn, that part of the Auſtrian army which was before Zurich, and which forced him, notwithſtanding a firſt advantage, to fall back to his former poſition.

The Archduke gave the command of his left, in the canton of Schwitz, to General Hotze, who fixed his head-quarters at Kloten. Maſſena had fixed his at Lenzburg, perfected his lines, called in his left under Lecourbe, whoſe rearguard, under General Loiſon, had been in continued action with the Auſtrian corps under Generals Bellegarde and Haddick, amid the valleys in the neighbourhood of St. Gothard, and which reduced that country to a ſtate little better than a frightful deſert.

Towards the end of June, the Archduke, perceiving that Maſſena was receiving reinforcements, gave orders to General Stzarry, who commanded on the right ſide of the Rhine, to haraſs the French poſts, and draw their attention ſeriouſly towards the departments of the Rhine. The French diviſions at Offenburg, under General Grand, were forced back to Kenl, and other troops in that quarter were compelled to take refuge under Vieux Briſach. Maſſena, on his ſide, reinforced his left beyond the Rhine in the poſition of Lorrach, finiſhed putting Baſil in a ſtate of defence, and gave

General

General Grand the means of acting on the offenſive.

The Auſtrians poſted at Reſchen, under General Corger, were vigorouſly attacked by the French and driven beyond Oberkirk. A deſperate action took place between Blankenſtein's huſſars, and ſome companies of French grenadiers. Two days after General Meersfeldt was attacked by Grand, who forced him to evacuate Offenburg, and puſhed him back beyond Ortemberg. The French were attacked in their turn (July 9th) by Meersfeldt who had been reinforced, and were compelled to yield the whole of the advantages they had gained. Maſſena, mean while, made attempts on the left of the Archduke in the little cantons, which he knew had been weakened by detachments of the diviſions under Bellegarde and Haddick: various actions took place,—poſts were taken, and retaken, while no advantage accrued to either ſide. General Hotze made, (July 14th) a ſimilar attempt, who had reſumed the command of the left of the Archduke's army, upon the right of the French;—the left of the Auſtrian army having been reinforced by ſucceſſive troops which had poured in from Germany and the Tyrol, during the laſt ſix weeks. Theſe attacks, made on the left of the lake Lucerne, had no better ſucceſs than that made by the French, who, however, brought back among their priſoners the Auſtrian General Compte de Bey.

This firſt offenſive movement of the Archduke's left was combined with thoſe which were preparing in the Upper Vallais, where a great number of inhabitants, armed, and formed into companies, had joined the allies, and had been continually haraſſing the poſts of the diviſion under the command of General Thurreau.

Thus we have laid before our readers a ſuccinct detail of the various movements, and bloody conflicts, between the ſeveral belligerent powers, and which proved ſo highly diſaſtrous to the armies of the French republic.

This

This reverſe of fortune in the affairs of the French republic, was not unknown to the reſpective executive governments under whoſe direction the allied forces, eſpecially, carried on their operations. The Britiſh cabinet heard with triumphant exultation the joyful tidings. They made now no ſecret of their determination to liſten to no other terms with the humbled French republic,—than *indemnity for the paſt, and ſecurity for the future!*—Either a regal eſtabliſhment, with all its former authority; or, what would meet the expectations of ſome of the allied powers with greater ſatisfaction,—the total extirpation of that peſtiferous race of republicans, with the partition of that obnoxious country, as a reward for the virtuous exertions of the allied powers, in thus nobly reſcuing the greateſt part of Europe from the moſt abject ſlavery into which they have been for eight years of bloody conflicts, ſubjected by the deteſtable democratic deſpots of France!

To corroborate our obſervations, which we have derived from the moſt unqueſtionable authorities, we ſhall ſubjoin the official accounts of the ſucceſſes of the allied armies, as tranſmitted regularly from their reſpective head-quarters.

Downing-ſtreet, May 22d, 1799.

A diſpatch, of which the following is an extract, has been this day received from the right honourable Sir Morton Eden, K. B. by the right honourable Lord Grenville, dated Vienna, May 7th.

An officer arrived here yeſterday from Milan, with an account of Marſhall Suwarrow having forced the paſſage of the Adda, on the 27th paſt, completely beaten the army, and eſtabliſhed his head-quarters on the 30th at Milan.—By this victory all the Milaneſe, except the caſtle of Milan, is wreſted from the French, and it muſt alſo ſoon fall, as the garriſon does not exceed 1,200 men, of which only 400 are French.

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The diſorder of the enemy in their flight was extreme; and it is ſuppoſed that they went towards the Po. Another body of the enemy, it is ſaid, are throwing up works at Reggio and Parma, in order to cover Mantua. I incloſe the extraordinary gazette publiſhed late laſt night on this occaſion, and moſt ſincerely congratulate your lordſhip on theſe brilliant and important events. It is with great ſatisfaction I add, that by accounts juſt received from General Bellegarde, it appears that that General has driven the enemy from nearly the whole of the Lower Engadin.

Tranſlation of the Vienna Gazette Extraordinary, May 6th, 1799.

In this Gazette Extraordinary we have a long and circumſtantial detail of all the movements of the reſpective Generals, with their diviſions, previous to the general engagement between the combined and republican armies; and as we will not fatigue the attention of our readers with the detail, we ſhall only mention ſome of the material circumſtances.—The bridges being finiſhed, Major Retzer with ſix companies of Chaſſeurs, and one regiment of Ruſſian Coſſacks, paſſed the Adda; one battalion of Nadſty, two of Eſterhazy, and the fourth Bannat battalion, then paſſed the river under the command of Colonel Bideſkuti, and fell upon the enemy in and behind Trezzo. The French, who conſidered the building of this bridge as impoſſible, had not the leaſt notice of it.—The enemy was driven back as far as Pozzo, where Field-marſhal Ott, fell upon the diviſion of the enemy, commanded by General Grenier,—the battle was obſtinately fought,—the huſſars having broken through the French, made 500 priſoners, and cut 200 to pieces. The village Pozzo was carried ſword in hand.

The enemy, in the mean time, had received reinforcements, and marched his troops up in order;—but was again attacked, and Major Retzer, with the Nadaſty battalion, took Baprio, and made 200 priſoners.

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The enemy was purſued; and the French general Botzer, and thirty wounded officers, were taken priſoners. At the ſame time, General Melas marched againſt Caſſano, and battered the entrenchments acroſs the Ritorto canal with twelve-pounders and howitzers; and, as the French fell back, cauſed a flying bridge to be thrown over the canal de Ritorto. Count Kinſki, firſt lieutenant of the pioneers, completed it in ſpite of the heavy fire of the enemy. General Melas immediately ordered the Reiſky's regiment againſt the entrenchments that covered the bridge, which, with three cannons, was carried with ſo much rapidity, that the bridge, which had been ſet on fire by the French, was ſaved by our troops. General Melas croſſed the Adda with his whole column, and the ſame evening marched to Gergonzollo, and early next day (28th) to Milan. The two diviſions of Frolich and Ott advanced to Milan on the 28th; the right, under General Rozemberg, paſſed the Adda at Brivio on the 27th; but General Vukaſſovich, who had already paſſed the river, and formed the advanced guard, met with a diviſion of French under General Serrurier at Bertero, which, after a moſt obſtinate engagement, was beaten, and forced to capitulate. The whole corps laid down their arms; the officers were permitted to return to France on their parole, and the privates remained priſoners of war. After this affair, General Vukaſſovich marched to Corno, and the Ruſſians to the right of Milan. In Milan conſiderable magazines of clothing, arms, and proviſions, were found, of which an inventory is now made out. A General, with 500 men, were alſo taken priſoners here.

The loſs of the enemy, as far as could be aſcertained when the meſſenger left the army, amounted to four Generals, and upwards of 5,000 men taken priſoners, and 6,000 killed. Eighty pieces of cannon were taken, of which forty-ſix are heavy beſieging artillery. Several ſtandards were alſo taken. Field-marſhal Suwarrow has left Field-marſhal Kray, with a

ſufficient force, in the environs of Mantua and Peſchiera. Mantua is blockaded, and Peſchiera is beſieged.

Then follow the terms of capitulation propoſed by General Serrurier, and accepted by General Vukaſſovich.

Vienna, May 12th, 1799.

A meſſenger arrived this morning with letters from Marſhal Suwarrow.—He ſtates, that the enemy is flying on all ſides, without daring to make head againſt him; that the Auſtrians are in poſſeſſion of Novara on the one ſide, and of Pavia, whither the head-quarters were to be transferred that evening, and the caſtle of Placentia on the other; that Vercelli is abandoned; that a detachment had been at Modena, which they found evacuated by the enemy; that 400 Croats, and a numerous body of peaſantry, cloſely blockaded Ferrara; that preparations were making for forming and puſhing the ſiege of Mantua with vigour; that great quantities of cannon, ammunition, and other ſtores, had been taken at different places, particularly at Peſchiera, where the booty far exceeded all expectation; that the inhabitants of different countries ſhewed the utmoſt gratitude for their deliverance; that the Piedmonteſe officers who had been taken are, under the auſpices of the Marſhal, drawing up a proclamation, inviting their brother officers and ſoldiers to riſe and join them, for the purpoſe of re-eſtabliſhing their ſovereign on his throne.

Extract of a letter from Lieutenant-colonel Crauford, dated head-quarters of General Hotze, Mayenfeldt, May 22d, 1799.

On the 14th inſtant I had the honour to write your Lordſhip, containing an account of the ſucceſsful attack made by General Hotze on the enemy's poſt at St. Lucienſteig, and his other poſitions in the Griſon country. In the courſe of the evening of the 14th, above

above 1,000 more priſoners were brought in; ſo that the number taken in this affair amounted in the whole to between three and four thouſand men. The difficulties attending this operation was extremely great, &c.—On the whole, the enemy's loſs in this quarter, from the 14th, excluſive of killed and wounded, may be eſtimated at 4,000 priſoners, and thirty-ſix pieces of cannon.

Another gazette extraordinary from Vienna ſtates, that ſeveral ſevere actions had taken place between the Archduke and the French, in which his royal highneſs repeatedly came off ſucceſsful, and particularly obſerves, that the rapid progreſs of General Hotze obliged the enemy to abandon the neighbourhood of St. Gall, as well as the banks of the Rhine—in a word, that Generals Vukaſſovich, Bellegarde, Hotze, &c. were all ſucceſsful in their operations againſt the French.

Downing-ſtreet, June 21ſt, 1799.

A diſpatch, of which the following is a copy, was received from Colonel Crauford by the right honourable Lord Grenville.

Zurich, June 7th.

My Lord,

I have the honour to inform your Lordſhip, that, in conſequence of a ſevere action which took place on the 4th inſtant, Maſſena has been obliged to abandon his entrenched camp before this place, and that the Auſtrians took poſſeſſion of the town yeſterday afternoon—here follows a detail of the operations of the allied army, but as it is of very great length, we omit inſerting it.—He concludes with obſerving, that as the troops had greatly ſuffered by fatigue, the Archduke determined to defer till the 6th the renewal of the attack. But the enemy, whoſe loſs in the affair of the 4th had been very great, and who foreſaw the total ruin of his army if

if Zurich-berg ſhould be forced, retired in the night, leaving in his entrenchments thirty-five pieces of cannon, three howitzers, and a great number of ammunition waggons. In the afternoon of the 6th the Auſtrians occupied the town. In the attack of the 4th, the Auſtrian infantry ſuffered a conſiderable loſs in killed and wounded; among the wounded were General Wallis, General Hotze, and Major-general Hiller. Genoral Hotze received a muſket-ſhot in the arm early in the action, but it did not hurt the bone, nor prevent him from commanding his corps. Cherin, General of diviſion, and chief of the ſtaff, together with two other French generals, were ſeverely wounded, and two Adjutant-generals are among the priſoners, of which there are a conſiderable number.

ROBERT CRAUFORD.

Extract of a letter from Sir Morton Eden, dated Vienna, June 4th.

I have the honour of encloſing to your Lordſhip two extraordinary gazettes of this place, publiſhed yeſterday evening.

Vienna, June 3d.—General Baron Kray has ſent intelligence of the capture of the citadel of Ferrara, May 23d, having erected two batteries, which work was carried on with ſuch activity and ſpirit, that they were finiſhed in four days. On the 23d, at three o'clock in the morning, the enemy had already evacuated the town, which General Klenau garriſoned with the light battalion of Bach. At eight o'clock in the morning, Klenau ſummoned the commandant of the citadel to ſurrender, but a negative anſwer was returned. The batteries being ready, and the artillery and ammunition having been conveyed to them at day-break, General Klenau ordered ſhells to be thrown, both from mortars and howitzers, into the citadel. Two magazines in the fortreſs having caught fire, the commandant was ſummoned a ſecond time; and, after ſome delay,

delay, a flag of truce was ſent about nine in the evening with propoſals of capitulation, which were concluded at one o'clock next morning. The enemy's fire killed two privates in the artillery, and wounded a workman. On the 24th in the morning the copies of capitulation were exchanged, hoſtages mutually delivered up, and the gate of Soccorſo was occupied an hour after. Seventy two new braſs cannon, with their ammunition, and ſix months proviſions, were found in the fortreſs. The hoſpital ſtores alone are eſtimated at 1,500,000 French livres.

Downing-ſtreet July, 27th.

Under date Vienna July 8th, are given farther particulars of the battles which were fought on the 17th, 18th, and 19th of June, between the rivulet Tidone, and the river Trebbia, and of the purſuit of the enemy on the 20th over the Nura.—After many minute details of bloody ſkirmiſhes, it is added that General Suwarrow, in conſequence of the ſucceſſes, took poſſeſſion of the town of Tortona, with four battalions, and blockaded the citadel as before.

Moreau had been engaged on the 20th with Marſhall Bellegarde, who had but an inconſiderable body of men to oppoſe to the ſuperior force of the enemy, being obliged to keep Aleſſandria blockaded. He, however, ſucceeded though with the ſevere loſs of 205 killed, 578 wounded, and 1,229 priſoners, in ſuch a manner that the enemy remained full four days inactive, and on the 5th commenced their retreat through Novi, and on the 26th were continuing their retreat over Bochetta.

Thus was the army of the enemy, in the ſhort ſpace of ten days, almoſt annihilated, the ſiege of the citadel of Mantua once more ſecured, the whole of the river Po liberated, Tortona again blockaded, and Moreau driven back to his former poſition. The advantages gained during the whole of this conteſt, conſiſt in a loſs of the enemy of 6,000 killed, 5,085 taken priſoners on

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an aſſault, ſent, at three in the afternoon of the 21ſt, his Adjutant-general, Louis, with a letter to the Field-marſhal Bellegarde to the following effect: "That the anſwer which he had ſent to his firſt ſummons to ſurrender, was ſuch as his duty required of him. But that now, being enabled to liſten to the voice of humanity, without acting againſt his conſcience, or fear of reproach, he was diſpoſed to enter into a negociation for a capitulation, upon conditons which Frenchmen could accept, who knew how to ſacrifice every thing for their honour."—The capitulation was concluded. The garriſon were made priſoners of war; they then marched out, and laid down their arms on the glacis.—Then follow the terms of the capitulation conſiſting of nine articles.

There were found in the citadel 103 guns of different calibres; the number of priſoners of war of the garriſon was 2,400.

Extract of a letter from Lord Henley to Lord Grenville, dated Vienna, Auguſt 3d.

It gives me the greateſt ſatisfaction to be enabled to cloſe my official correſpondence from this place with the important intelligence of the ſurrender of Mantua to the Imperial arms. A courier is juſt arrived from General Kray with diſpatches of the 30th paſt, ſtating, that on the 27th the horn-work was taken; on the 28th the town was ſummoned; on the 29th the capitulation was ſigned; and on the 30th the place was occupied by the Imperial troops. The garriſon are priſoners of war; the privates have liberty to return to France, on the condition of not ſerving againſt the Emperor or his allies till they are exchanged againſt an equal number of Auſtrians, &c.

Head-quarters, Boſco, July 30th, 1799.

My Lord,

I have the ſatisfaction to encloſe the capitulation of Mantua. The trenches had been opened only fourteen days.

days. The garriſon, I am informed, amounts to near 13,000 men: the ſick, including the non-combatants, are about 500. The loſs of the Auſtrians does not exceed more than 200 men.

BENTINCK.

Then follow the articles of capitulation, which are expreſſed in the uſual ſtyle.

The defeat of the army of Naples was not the only cataſtrophe which befel the cauſe which that army was commiſſioned to defend. A far more dreadful ſcene of horrors ſucceeded this event. The evacuation of Naples, as might have been expected, raiſed the hopes and kindled the ardour of thoſe who, notwithſtanding their ſubmiſſion to the laws of the new republic, felt no diſpoſition to obedience when it was no longer exacted by ſuperior force. The tyrannical conduct of the French agents, for the moſt part a horde of robbers and ruffians, under the controul of no law but the rage for confiſcation and plunder, and fitted only to make the name of liberty deteſtable wherever they directed their peſtilential ſteps, had alienated the minds of numbers; and the news of the defeats of the French armies in the north of Italy, which had been induſtriouſly diſſeminated among the populace, tended to make the inſurrection general. The French party, which was greatly the minority, but which is ſaid to have conſiſted of the moſt conſiderable of the inhabitants, both for rank and fortune, ſaw that it was impoſſible to reſiſt this inſurrection, and much leſs to oppoſe the forces which were pouring in againſt them on every ſide, particularly the troops under Cardinal Ruffo, who was then at the gates of the city with an army which he had collected and maintained in Calabria, aided by a diviſion of 2,000 Engliſh, and 500 Ruffian troops. They withdrew, therefore, into the forts, in order to ſecure at leaſt an honourable capitulation.

They were ſeveral times attacked, but repulſed the aſſailants with great courage.

After continued hoſtilities, for ten days, the cardinal ſent flags of truce to the members of the government who were in the Caſtello Novo, and to them who had taken refuge in the caſtle of St. Elmo. In concert with Megeout, commander of St. Elmo, they entered into capitulation with Ruffo, who aſſumed the title of Vicar of the King of Naples. One of the chief articles of the capitulation ſtated, "that the members of the government, and the patriots in the fortreſſes, as well as the French garriſon and the national troops, ſhould march out with the honours of war, with arms and baggage, and ſhould be conducted to Toulon" It was alſo agreed, that individuals comprehended in this capitulation ſhould be permitted to go every where in the city, in order to ſettle their private affairs. The caſtle of St. Elmo was not to be evacuated until the entire execution of the capitulation, in order to guarantee themſelves by force againſt any violation of the faith of the treaty.

By a fatal combination of contrary winds and other circumſtances, the republicans remained in the roads ſeventeen days, during which time they were no way moleſted: but the Engliſh fleet, commanded by Lord Nelſon, appearing before the port of Naples, began by blocking up the whole of the veſſels deſtined to convoy them to Toulon. Soon after a frigate arrived, eſcorted by two Engliſh ſhips of the line, on board of which was the King of Naples. Scarcely had he caſt anchor before he publiſhed an edict, by which he declared that no permiſſion had been given to enter into negociation with rebels; and that Cardinal Ruffo had not the faculty of derogating from this principle of ſovereignty. In conſequence of this declaration, he annulled the convention which had been made, and ordered the puniſhment of the rebels. The execution of this edict was inſtantly put in force; the veſſels were immediately boarded; the republicans were dragged

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to the priſons, their houſes were pillaged, and an inquiſition was ſet on foot for the diſcovery of all ſuch as had manifeſted ſentiments favourable to the new order of things. Some of the moſt conſpicuous of the republican party were hung up on the ſpot!

Amidſt theſe tranſactions, the French who had embarked, and the garriſon ſtill in the caſtle of St. Elmo, received orders inſtantly to depart. The republicans who had taken refuge in the fortreſs hoped to ſave themſelves by aſſuming the French uniform and mingling in the ranks; but the appetite for blood was too keen to be ſo eaſily ſatiated;—each ſoldier was examined with the ſcrutinizing eye of vengeance.—As ſoon as the French were gone, the city, it is aſſerted, was delivered up to every ſpecies of plunder. More than 800 houſes were given up to pillage and to the flames! The Lazzaroni became once more the inſtruments of royal vengeance. A ſpecial commiſſion was appointed which pronounced ſentence of death, without much formality, on ſuch as had taken an active part in the late government: little other formality, indeed, was neceſſary than the identification of their perſons, ſince the crime ſtated in the royal edict was but too apparent. Almoſt the whole members of the executive and legiſlative commiſſions periſhed by the hands of the executioner.

Exaggeration of calamity is natural to the wretched; thoſe who had the good fortune to eſcape the maſſacre, ſpeak of horrors unexampled in thoſe times, which ſcarcely find a name among civilized people, and with which the cruelties exerciſed under the reign of terror in France bear no kind of competition. The court of Naples, ſcandalized at the reports which had been circulated through foreign countries, publiſhed officially what it deemed a refutation of thoſe calumnies; aſſerting, that the perſons accuſed of having exerted themſelves in favour of French liberty, had been tried by competent tribunals, and by *upright magiſtrates!*—that all thoſe who had been accuſed had not been put

to death; and that this puniſhment had been reſerved only for the moſt atrocious criminals; in juſtification of which a liſt was publiſhed of part of the proceedings of this ſupreme tribunal. Among other names in this official ſcroll were inſcribed thoſe of Julian Colonna, Prince of Stigliano, and the Duke of Caſano, who were beheaded; Eleanora Foneſca, the marchioneſs of Piemontello, and eighteen other ladies of rank, with the biſhop of Vico, were hanged! The Duke of Caraciolo, Major-general Spano, and others, Colonels, Majors, and eccleſiaſtics, were ſent to work in the galleys; the Ducheſs of Caſlano and Populi ſhut up in the penitentiary hoſpital for life. This ſupreme tribunal had been erected to prevent the repetition of the horrors which had taken place in the firſt weeks of vengeance. In the official account, after declaring the names of the criminals who had been puniſhed, it is obſerved, that in this liſt were not comprehended a greater number of different ranks and qualities who periſhed in the firſt movements of the re-eſtabliſhment of order, and before the formation of the ſupreme tribunal. The people, it was added, knew how to diſtinguiſh the enemies of their king, and execute due juſtice towards them.

The cardinal Ruffo proteſted againſt the violation of the capitulation which he had made with the republicans, and his having been authorized, by a latter from the principal miniſter, to grant to their full extent, the conditions ſpecified in the treaty—to no purpoſe. The dungeons continued to be filled by thouſands, and the tribunal made blood flow in copious ſtreams, in order to diſplay its fidelity to the *royal edict!* The authority of Ruffo, as viceroy, was reſtrained by a junto of nine councellors, whoſe votes guided his operations; his zeal was ſo much the more to be ſuſpected, as he had not been diſcreet in his murmurs againſt theſe violations, and had indulged feelings of reſentment, beyond what was ſuitable to thoſe who thought that faith was no more to be kept with rebels than

than with heretics; and, that the will and intereſt of Princes were paramount to every other conſideration.

It is doubtful whether this ſanguinary mode of re-eſtabliſhing order was the wiſeſt which the court of Naples could have adopted, in the preſent ſtate of political change and fermentation in Europe. A more ſolid ſupport had been previouſly obtained by the concluſion of a treaty, offenſive and defenſive, between the government of Naples and that of Vienna, in which it was ſtipulated, that the contracting parties ſhould keep on foot, till the continental peace, and the perfect conſolidation of tranquillity in Italy, the latter 60,000 troops, and the former 30,000; which troops ſhould be held independent of other engagements, and capable, in extraordinary caſes, of augmentation. A retroſpective view, however, of this tribunal and their ſanguinary proceedings ſeemed dreadfully to realize an obſervation of the wiſeſt of men.—"The tender mercies of the wicked are cruel."

During a violent internal ſtruggle at this time between the Jacobins and the moderate party (who were by far the greater number) the anniverſary of the fall of the reign of terror, and the puniſhment of Robeſpierre happened at this time. The Jacobins hung their tribune with black, expreſſive of their mourning for the events of that day, while the people, with the conſtituted authorities, repaired to the Champ de Mars, to celebrate it as a day of thankſgiving and feſtival. The celebrated Sieyes was then preſident of the directory; it was uſual for preſidents to deliver diſcourſes on thoſe public days analogous to the occaſion of the meeting. Sieyes did not loſe an opportunity ſo favourable, not only of expreſſing his perſonal feelings reſpecting the Jacobins, but, in his official capacity, of conveying to the whole republic the deteſtation with which they were viewed by the government, and the moſt virtuous part of the citizens. The picture which he drew of the crimes and the tyranny of the actors in

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thoſe memorable and dreadful ſcenes, was pointed and eloquent, and the public aſſurances given by the government greatly diminiſhed the inquietudes of the people. The council of elders remained alſo faithful to its alliance in the rejection of a project ſent up by the council of five hundred, granting an amneſty in favour of Barrere, who was greatly diſtinguiſhed, during the reign of terror, as being next to Robeſpierre for talents and ſeverity, and who had been condemned to baniſhment for his crimes.

This noted perſonage, though defended by Garrat, who alſo had his ſhare in the iniquitous tranſactions of thoſe times, was once more conſigned to the execration of poſterity, by the recapitulation of what are called his Anacreontics; but the moſt important point gained by the diſcuſſion, was the firm reſolution ſhown by the council of elders, to oppoſe the council of five hundred, in every thing which bore relation to the admiſſion of the principles or partiſans of that reprobated ſyſtem.

This determined oppoſition of the directorial government to Jacobinical principles, received additional force by another celebrated ſpeech delivered by Sieyes, on the anniverſary of the 10th of Auguſt, when, in a ſtrain of indignant eloquence, he held the members of theſe obnoxious ſocieties as "traitors, ſubſidized by the common enemy, as ſlaves only to their paſſions, anxious either for the ſpeedy return of royalty, or preferring the return of that terror, the recollection of which made human nature ſhudder, and was ſo juſtly abhorred by the French nation, celebrated through the world for their humanity and generoſity." The Jacobins and the government were now in open hoſtilities; the declaration of Sieyes, and the report of the miniſter of the police, furniſhed them with new matter of diſcuſſion; the neceſſity of ſaving the country, incapable of ſaving itſelf, and of putting themſelves in a ſtate of defence, became the order of the day; and proof was bout to be alledged, that the chief conſpirators againſt the

the republic were the members who compoſed the executive power. Further heſitation on the part of government was hardly to be expected. The directory paſſed a decree which ſhut up the ſociety. The ſeals were placed on its papers and doors, the military force put an end to its further meetings, and domiciliary viſits, for a month, were ordered to be made, in order to clear Paris of the ſwarms of royaliſts and Jacobins that had poured in from the departments to ſhare in the new revolution that was expected to take place in conſequence of the patriotic energies of the latter party.

While theſe events were paſſing at Paris, the armies, though far from being in a ſtate of inaction, had taken time to recruit their forces, ſo dreadfully diminiſhed during the firſt four months of the campaign. General Maſſena, poſted on Mount Albis, behind the Limmat, continued to prevent the approach of the Archduke beyond Zurich; while Moreau, keeping firm the chains of the Appenines, and covering Genoa, hindered Suwarrow from executing his meditated invaſion of France. The conqueſt of Italy, which the court of Vienna had ſo much at heart, and were ſo anxious to achieve, and of which it did not think itſelf aſſured till it was completely evacuated by the French, led the Archduke to weaken his forces on the ſide of Switzerland, where the moſt important blow for the ſucceſs of the general plan of the allies, might have been ſtruck. Poſſibly, if ſuch means had been given, or preſerved to the Archduke, as to force the evacuation of Switzerland, and if Piedmont had not been invaded till the ſummits of the Alps had been occupied by ſufficient forces, and the moſt dangerous inlets towards the heart of Italy had been cloſed, the private views of the Auſtrian cabinet might have been equally attained, the frontiers of the Tyrol and the ancient ſtate of Venice ſecured, and the victories of Suwarrow might have further advanced the execution of the general plan of the allies.

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The deſtination of the new auxiliary army of the Ruſſians was not miſtaken by the French government, which, while it ordered its Generals in Italy to make the laſt efforts to maintain themſelves as long as poſſible in the Ligurian republic, were ſending into Switzerland, towards the centre of the line of defence, the beſt part of the reſerve of the interior, together with the new levies, and forming an army on the Rhine to oppoſe that which the Archduke was about to aſſemble, in order to penetrate through Switzerland, into thoſe departments on the eaſt of France, which formerly compoſed part of the provinces of Dauphiny, Provera, and Franche Compte. The plan of the coalition was thus at once developed; but as the forces neceſſary to enſure its execution could not reach the points where they were deſtined to act till the middle of Auguſt, the French had likewiſe time to recruit their armies.

As the French plan, at the opening of the campaign, was that of a general attack on the whole line, before Suwarrow had joined the Archduke's army, and before that Prince had aſſembled his forces, ſo the French government had been anxious this time to reſume the offenſive at once to prevent the junction of the reinforcements expected by the allies on the Rhine and in Italy. This was certainly a wiſe combination, ſince the ſlow progreſs of the ſecond auxiliary Ruſſian army, comprehending the corps of the Prince of Conde, and alſo the ſiege of Mantua, had at that moment made a difference in the Imperial armies of about 70,000 men in favour of the French; whilſt the reſerve of the interior and the new battalions of conſcripts were about to furniſh nearly the ſame number of recruits to the armies of the republic.

A ſketch of the movements executed nearly at the ſame period by the four French armies, on the four principal and leading points on which the attention of the French government was fixed, will elucidate the important acts which marked the opening, as it were, of this ſecond campaign. Theſe four points were, the Ligurian

Ligurian republic, the occupation of which, till the cloſe of the campaign, could alone ſecure the ſouthern provinces of France from the invaſion meditated by Suwarrow; the frontiers of Mont Blanc, and the Lower Alps, on which points the allies had only armies of obſervation, who occupied the poſts at the entrance of the Vallais, but were not ſtrong enough to carry thoſe on the heights, and keep them. In Switzerland, the entire evacuation of which would have opened a way into the heart of France, but of which the defence could not be ſecure, till the Imperialiſts had been diſlodged from the higheſt ſummits of the Great Alps, and the French had again poſſeſſion of thoſe paſſages and communications with Italy, to the ſeaſon when the ſnows came to ſhut out both parties from thoſe deſert rocks, thoſe abyſſes covered with blood, and into which ſo many brave men were about to precipitate one another, to diſpute and decide the advantage of the general poſition, and perhaps with the fate of Switzerland, that of France itſelf; and laſtly, the Lower Rhine, where the Imperialiſts had reinforced, by degrees, their army of obſervation, and to which a Ruſſian corps and the contingents of the empire were to be added.

General Joubert, who had now been promoted to the command of the army of Italy, was to be ordered to defend the Apennines, to give battle to Suwarrow, and favour this movement by that of different corps of army of the Alps, under Championet; to engage Maſſena in a general action, to drive from the little cantons, and from St. Gothard, the left of the Auſtrian army, enfeebled by its being too extended, ſince the detachment of the corps of Bellegarde, Laudohn, and Haddick, to the army of Suwarrow; to operate on the right ſide of the Lower Rhine, as yet empty of troops, and covered with rich harveſts, reſerved for the allies, a powerful diverſion, which ſhould force the Archduke, if not to come to the aid of General Stzarry, at leaſt to lead him to expect no aſſiſtance from Suabia, menaced at the moment in which he ſhould be vigorouſly attacked.

Such, from the Lower Rhine to the Mediterranean, was the plan of attack indicated and executed by the French, but of which the refults were fo different.

Although Maffena had for fome time paft, received orders from the new directory to refume immediately the offenfive, he had refifted that imprudent anxiety fo far as to incur its difpleafure, and even receive orders to quit the command of his army. The report, indeed, was accredited in Paris that he held intelligence with the Archduke, and had betrayed the confidence of his country. Maffena, on the contrary, calculating the time in which the Ruffian troops could arrive with the greateft poffible fpeed, preferred ripening his plans, and by delay ftriking a furer blow, fince every day augmented his numerical force, which the Archduke was unable to hinder, or procure for himfelf the fame advantages. It appears alfo that the want of refources, and the difficulty of fubfiftence in a country which had been eaten up by fo long an abode of two great armies, and was fo little productive, had retarded his preparations, and even difgufted a part of his army.

About the 18th of Auguft, the firft columns of the Ruffian army, of about 20,000 men, under the command of General Rimfi Korfakow, were to reach Schaffhaufen; it was only on the 11th that Maffena began his operations; he had reinforced the right wing, commanded by General Lecourbe, as much as he was able, without too greatly weakening his centre againft Zurich, and his left which was flanked by the Rhine. As he propofed to detach entirely this right wing from the centre, and to make its marches, manœuvres, and attacks, in the whole mafs of the Great Alps, from the Vallais to the Lake of Zurich, totally independent, he endeavoured fo to fix, on the oppofite fide, the attention of the Archduke, as to conceal from him, by vigorous attacks on the centre of his pofition, the reinforcements which he had fent to General Lecourbe, and hinder him from making the fame manœuvre by his left, and fupporting the Generals Jellachich and Simpfchen.

Simpſchen. On the Reuſs, and in the ſpace between St Gothard and the Lake of Zurich, thoſe Generals occupied only the principal points of a chain of poſitions, which were too extended; theſe different corps, amounting on the whole to no more than 20,000 men, could neither form ſufficient reſerves to ſtop the columns which ſhould attempt to cut off their communications, nor even to maintain themſelves, notwithſtanding the advantages of the ground, in inſulated poſts, or in camps which might be flanked, or taken in the rear by ſuperior forces.

The French commander began the attack with his left (Auguſt 12th) in the neighbourhood of Baden, by ſkirmiſhes between the advanced poſts: the next morning, at the break of day, covered by a thick fog, he ſent a column acroſs the Limmat, which carried at firſt one of the main-guards, penetrated into the camp of the cavalry, where a regiment of dragoons, and a few ſquadrons of huſſars had to ſuſtain a very vigorous ſhock, and were roughly treated. This ſurpriſe ſpread alarm at Zurich; the French had puſhed their columns within a very ſhort diſtance of the city, acroſs which the Archduke diſpatched freſh troops; they had alſo penetrated as far as the rear of ſome points of the line; when, attacked in their turn by ſuperior forces, and taken in flank by two batteries, they were obliged to act on the defenſive; much blood was ſhed, and the carnage was the greater, as the Swiſs of both parties met in the combat, and charged each other with that deſperate fury which marks the violence of parties in civil contentions. As victory on this point was but a ſecondary object, Maſſena withdrew his columns to the left of the Limmat, and the next day (Auguſt 15th) the centre of each army took its former poſition.

During this attack, all the columns, the whole force of which, on either ſide of the Lake Lucerne, comprehending the diviſion of General Thureau in the Vallais, was about 30,000 men, moved all at the ſame time, and directed their march on the principal poſts of the

Imperialiſts.

Imperialiſts. The French diviſion, commanded by General Chabron, paſſed the Slid, ſurpriſed and drove back the Auſtrian poſts on the weſtern ſide of the Lake of Zurich, climbed the heights of Richterſwyl and Etzel, and turned and attacked an Auſtrian corps, which occupied the ſtrong poſition between Lahen and Einſidlen. This intermediary corps between the centre of the army and the left wing, which occupied the courſe of the Reuſs, and covered the cantons of Schwitz and Uri, was almoſt entirely deſtroyed, taken, or diſperſed. The French puſhing their advanced guard within ſight of Pfefficon, threatened to turn the poſition of Zurich. This firſt ſucceſs cut off the communication of the reſt of the left wing of the Archduke with the centre of his army, and favoured the movements and attacks of General Lecourbe upon Schwitz, and on the whole courſe of the Reuſs, from Altorf to the top of St. Gothard. The diſplay of his front of attacks formed the prodigious line of fifty or ſixty miles.

In order to have an accurate judgment of this ſingular and brilliant expedition of General Lecourbe on the Reuſs, we ſhall take a momentary ſurvey of the whole of the High Alps, and obſerve the conſtant progreſs of nature in the formation of theſe tremendous maſſes. The waters quitting the upper parts, where they are ſuſpended as it were in reſervoirs, and following the laws of gravitation, produce every where, notwithſtanding their inexhauſtible variety, ſimilar effects, their maſs and velocity furrow up the ſurface of the globe, round hills divide riſing grounds, and ſeparate mountains. Thus, on the Great Alps, the torrents which ruſh from beneath the glaciers, fall, by different directions, into valleys ſo narrow, ſo deeply excavated by the rapid current, that the declivities of thoſe enchained mountains render them inacceſſible in every other direction but that of the bed of thoſe torrents.

The St. Gothard, the Furca, and the Grimſel, form, as it were, the knot of the four principal chains of the Alps in Switzerland. Many torrents ruſh from the almoſt inac-

inacceſſible heights, which make them impervious even to the moſt cautious traveller; much more ſo muſt they be to the march of armies conveying artillery, magazines, and all the cumberſome apparatus of war. Yet the ardour of the hoſtile armies was ſo great, that they purſued their route over thoſe frightful barriers. But to return.

Lecourbe, who had orders to repulſe the corps of Generals Jellachich and Simpſchen, and to take poſſeſſion of this poſition, this key, the importance and influence of which, on the whole of Switzerland, may eaſily be perceived, divided his troops into four columns. He continued his courſe up the lake, to ſecond the central and difficult attack at Altorf, which he had confided to General Perſou, chief officer of his ſtaff. The ſame day, and at the ſame time that Lecourbe had ſucceeded in opening the entrance of the lower valley of the Reuſs, General Loiſon, who had been ordered to march with a demi-brigade, and a reſerve of grenadiers, upon Waſen, reached it after a moſt painful march, acroſs ice and ſnows, till he came to the little fort of Meyenthal, placed between the precipices of the torrent of the Meyen, and rocks which were perpendicular; a ſingle path, ſwept by artillery and muſketry, led to this fort, defended by 300 men. The grenadiers inſiſted on being led to the attack, and it was carried by ſtorm.

Lecourbe, having diſperſed and purſued into the Maderanerthal, on the right ſide of the Reuſs, a few Auſtrian poſts which held firm, and obſtructed his progreſs, haſtened to aſcend the Reuſs, and precede General Loiſon, of whoſe operations he had no intelligence.

On his march he met with this General with a battalion ſent to eſtabliſh his communication with him. Lecourbe then uniting his forces, in order to take poſſeſſion of St. Gothard, marched to meet his right column, which General Gudin was to lead by the heights of the Grimſel and the Furca, as he had before marched to meet

meet General Loiſon, who, the preceding evening, had opened before him the valley of Urſeren; but having as yet no news of that General, or of what ſucceſs had attended his attack on St. Gothard, Lecourbe did not ſtop, and judging it a hopeleſs attempt, the turning the paſſage of the pierced rock, he undertook to attack in front, and force the famous Devil's Bridge. Lecourbe, therefore, marched on, with General Loiſon, the ſame day, in which, notwithſtanding the exceſſive fatigue of his troops, he had carried the fort of Meyenthal. At four in the afternoon, they came up with the firſt poſts of the Imperialiſts, and drove them back to their entrenchments at the Devil's Bridge, flanked by the torrent of the Reuſs, and by rocks which were inacceſſible; preſenting themſelves at the head of the Bridge in a column, and by a quick ſtep, purſued the Ruſſians, and hoped to have paſſed the bridge pell-mell with them; but on a ſudden, and in the hotteſt of the fray, the middle of the bridge and the hanging road diſappeared between the parapets, and ſeparated the combatants by an unexpected abyſs; an opening of thirty feet in breadth unveiled the torrent at the bottom of the precipice, and forced the head of the column of grenadiers to fall back, under the murderous fire of the oppoſite ſide. But ſo great was the energy and activity of the aſſailants, that the Devil's Bridge was repaired during the night, and the next morning General Gudin deſcending St. Gothard, by the valley Urſeren, made his appearance on the right ſide.

It would be difficult to deſcribe the obſtacles which the column under Gudin had to ſurmount in aſcending the valley of the Aar to attack the Auſtrians in the Grimſel; this poſt, as well as thoſe of the paſſages of the Vallais and the Furca, was occupied by more than 2,000 men, who, in poſitions which might be deemed impregnable, defended themſelves with obſtinate courage. The camp between Oberwald and Gueſchenin was attacked and carried; after having reſted one night on thoſe icy ſummits, in the open air, Gudin purſued

fued his march by the Furca towards St. Gothard, and fell down to the valley of Urſeren.

Thus, in the ſame day, forty-eight hours only after the beginning of the general movement on the offenſive, Lecourbe, maſter of St. Gothard, and of the whole courſe of the Reuſs, had re-eſtabliſhed his communications with the Upper Vallais, when the diviſion of General Thureau had effected its junction with the column of the right, and had beaten and driven back beyond the Simplon, with conſiderable loſs, the Auſtrian poſts; the corps of Colonel Strauch, which occupied the poſts of the Upper Vallais, was almoſt entirely diſperſed, taken, or deſtroyed.

The Auſtrian army, in the mean time, retreating from Urſeren upon Diſſentis, by the heights of Oberlein, had rallied on the mountains of Criſpalt, from which they had it in their power to deſcend again into the valley; and they alſo cloſed up the entrance of the Griſons by the ſources of the Rhine. Lecourbe, fearing leſt the Auſtrians ſhould ſtrengthen themſelves in this ſtrong poſition, turned St. Gothard by Airolo, while, with the greater part of his re-united forces, he marched towards the Lake of Oberlap, and forced the defile on the road to Diſentis, guarded by three battalions of Kerpen, who commanded the outlets of Giamut, and St. Giacomo. This laſt engagement was extremely bloody; the Generals, in perſon, charged at the head of the reſpective columns. Kerpen's regiment repulſed ſeveral attacks; but, yielding at length to the number and vigour of the attacks, was entirely defeated, and it was only a very ſmall part of this corps, purſued as far as Tavetch, that made good its retreat on Diſentis.

Meanwhile, the Archduke who left neither his central poſition nor his head-quarters at Kloten, haſtened to ſupport, on the line of the Limmat, and the Lakes of Zurich and Wallinſtadt, his left wing thus routed and diſperſed—making great exertions to bring up the firſt Ruſſian columns, which, at that moment reached Schaff-

Schaffhauſen, and to which he ſcarcely left a ſingle day of repoſe. At the ſame time, in order to fix the attention of Maſſena on his left, and to engage him to ſtop the movement of Lecourbe, he diſſembled the forcing or ſurpriſing the paſſage of the Aar below Baden, and began the conſtruction (17th Auguſt) of two bridges of boats, early in the morning. The work was continued under the fire of the French poſts on the left ſide; eight or ten pantoons were already eſtabliſhed; but it was perceived that the rocky bottom of the Aar, which did not permit any hold to the anchor, and the ſteepneſs of the banks rendered this attempt impracticable. The firſt Ruſſian diviſion, therefore, under the command of General Hotze, marched upon the Rigiberg, and upon Rapperſchweil, in order to ſtop the progreſs of the French.

Such, in Switzerland, was the ſucceſs by which the army of Maſſena concurred in the new general offenſive campaign. Our readers, we hope will excuſe us for having been rather copious in our account of the plans of the reſpective hoſtile powers, as theſe were productive of high and intereſting events, as we ſhall ſee in the further proſecution of our work.—To have given the ſimple reſults of this moſt extraordinary expedition, without partially entering into the details; to have left altogether, unexplained, thoſe great ſcenes, the events of which, and the actors, held the neareſt connection with the principal intereſt of this terrible drama, might have, indeed, ſufficed for the dry and methodical account of an action loſt or won;—but why not ſtop like the traveller, enthuſiaſtic of the beauties of nature, who counts not his progreſs by the ſpace he has meaſured, but by the rich variety of objects, beautiful and ſublime, which every where croſs his way?—Why not ſuſpend for a moment the attention on this great application of manœuvred marches by columns, at that ſpot of Europe, on that country, that ground which preſented every obſtacle, which offered every impediment to the combination of thoſe move-

ments,

ments, and of thoſe concerted attacks? When we follow, from the left to the right, between the Lake of Zurich and the entrance of the Vallais, the ſucceſſive burſtings of the French columns on the line of the Reuſs,—when we ſee Lecourbe, after the attacks on Schwitz and Altorf, engage himſelf with confidence in the valley of the Reuſs, and meet in ſucceſſion, and at given points, the columns of the right which had ſurmounted the greateſt difficulties, and engaged in the moſt dreadful combats, to reach the place of deſtination,—we cannot help finding the ſucceſs almoſt a miracle, notwithſtanding the ſuperiority of numbers, on the ſide of the French; and due juſtice will be rendered by every impartial military man to the conception of the plan of Maſſena and Lecourbe, and to the intrepidity and intelligence of the officers and troops that carried this bold and maſterly plan into execution. To this we may add, that in level countries, the plans of Generals are almoſt always ſubordinate to the rules of the art of war; marches are counted, manœuvres are elucidated, reſiſtance, time, and reſources are appreciated, meaſured, weighed; the whole is the reſult of calculation; and the datæ of the problem being almoſt always known, it is reſolved before the fate of arms has decided it; but in a mountainous country, the genius of the General is leſs ſhackled, and though he meets with more obſtacles, he bounds over the common rules, makes new combinations, invents artificial aids, and creates for himſelf an untried ſyſtem of war. If the air which is breathed in theſe lofty regions ſtrengthens the nerves, and gives the body more agility, the ideas are alſo more clear, the mind is more fertile in reſources, courage is more daring, the movements are more impetuous, every thing is active, brilliant, and rapid, as the torrent.

But, although the god of the mountains (as the Syrians of old ſaid upon their defeat) was propitious to the French, the god of the valleys, in the ſame day in Italy, furniſhed a ſtill greater triumph to the arms of

the allies. Suwarrow perſiſting in his reſolution of leaving no place behind him unconquered, and of getting poſſeſſion of the whole of the flat country, before he made any attempt againſt the Ligurian republic, or againſt the frontier of France, preſſed the ſiege of Tortona, and blocked up Coni more ſtraitly, watching the French poſts at the entrance of the defiles, and of the little valleys of the Appenines; whilſt General Klenau who had purſued to the entrance of the river of the Eaſt, Macdonald's rearguard, took poſſeſſion of Sarzana, of Fort Lerici, and of all the poſitions in the Gulf of Spezzia, where the French only occupied the Fort of St. Maria. The whole of the corps of the huge allied army drew nearer each other, and aſſembled in the plain between Orba and Scrivia; the army which had beſieged Mantua under General Kray, was expected; the ſpeedy capture of the citadel of Tortona was to be the ſignal for new attacks.

Upon General Joubert receiving the command of the French army from the hands of Moreau, he had divided the reinforcements and the ſuccours with which the government had augmented his forces, and ſignalized his arrival; the remains of the army of Macdonald, which formed the right, had drawn nearer Genoa, and a new repartition of the command of the diviſions had been made with a view to ulterior operations.

Macdonald returned to France to take repoſe, well purchaſed by one of the moſt painful as well as moſt glorious retreats ever effected; and which neither a complete ſucceſs in his laſt march, nor the victory which he was ſo near gaining, could have rendered more great or more memorable in the eyes of thoſe who knew how to appreciate the true talent of the General, and his intrepidity in the execution.

General St. Cyr commanded the right; General Perignon had taken the command of the left wing, and having received orders to march forwards to the heights, took poſſeſſion of the advantageous poſition of Milleſimo, celebrated

celebrated by the entrance of Bonaparte into Italy, of Murialto and Calizano, near Ceva, which gave him the command of the valleys of Tanaro and the Bormida, and alſo to the line of the advanced poſts of the French army, a more ſolid ſupport, and which, being more diſtant from the borders of the ſea, afforded a greater facility for manœuvres, and made better proviſions for the means of retreat, in caſe of diſaſter. The former ſurrender of Ceva, when it was attacked by the inſurgents, had already cauſed much injury to the French, and under the preſent circumſtances that ſupport would have been of conſiderable advantage to them. The commander who had the weakneſs to ſurrender it, had juſt been ſhot at Genoa. The centre and right of the French army, paſſing from Montenotte to Campo-freido, puſhing their advanced poſts into the valley of Erro, and that of Orba, were covered by that of the Bochetta, and commanded in front of this defile the rear of the valley of Scrivia. An advanced guard occupied the poſt of Govi; and that of Serravalla had been forced to capitulate.

General Joubert, who had taken his head-quarters at Campo Marino, between Savona and Montenotte, behind his left, after having, in concert with Moreau, reconnoitered all his poſitions, determined to make a vigorous effort to march his army into the plains, and maintain himſelf there, after he ſhould have forced Suwarrow to raiſe the ſiege of the citadel of Tortona. He requeſted Moreau to defer his departure, in order to aid him with his counſels.

Moreau generouſly accepted of this invitation, and even took a command under his orders. After having detached (Auguſt 15th), from the left and centre, ſtrong advanced guards, and taken advantageous poſitions in the valleys of Orba and Bormida, Joubert formed on that ſide three columns of attack; the firſt followed the valley of Bormida, directing itſelf upon the Acqui by the road of Dego; the ſecond, deſcending

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ing by the valley of Erro, marched upon Caſtel-ferro; the third, moving from Campo-freido, following the little valley of Lemer, and afterwards that of Orba, was to enter the plain by Ovado. A fourth column, ſtronger than the reſt, and actually deſtined to raiſe the blockade of Tortona, deſcending by the defiles of the Bochetta; this column was commanded by General St. Cyr, to whom Moreau and General Deſolles had united themſelves, to ſerve as guides for an operation which they had already executed at the battle of St. Giovanno.

The ſame day General Bellegarde's corps, which occupied the poſitions before Trezzo, was vigorouſly attacked. Joubert, who puſhed the left at Baſalozzo, which permitted him to cover the movement of a column which was detached from the right, was to follow the mountains which continue on the right ſide of the river Scrivia, and march towards Tortona. This movement which Suwarrow could no longer hinder, but by diſlodging the French army from this ſtrong poſition decided him to attack it the next morning. The attack began by the right of the allies, under General Kray, againſt the left of the French, where Joubert commanded in perſon. The action had ſcarcely commenced, when this General, to whoſe talents and character the French of all parties render equal juſtice, wiſhing to animate by his preſence a charge of infantry, crying out, *Forward! Forward!* was ſtruck with a ball which pierced his heart. He fell, repeating till he expired, *Forward! Forward!* When General Kray endeavoured to turn Novi, the Ruſſian General, Pangration, attacked in front, but both were repulſed; the Ruſſian diviſion, under General Derſelden, at the centre, and the left wing of General Melas, then received orders to attack, the firſt by the road of Novi, and Melas by aſcending the left ſide of the Scrivia; but this double attack had no better ſucceſs than that of the two other Generals; Derſelden tried in vain to gain the heights on the left of Novi. The two armies were

were now engaged along the whole of their lines; the conflict was dreadfully bloody. At three in the afternoon, General Kray's corps having been twice repulſed with great loſs, Suwarrow tried a ſecond attack againſt the heights of Novi, with the Ruſſian diviſions under the command of Generals Derſelden, Pangration, and Milleradowitch; but the French reſiſted with ſuch firmneſs, that they kept their poſition, notwithſtanding the reiterated charges of the columns. The centre of the allied army, by theſe ſucceſſive charges, was almoſt entirely deſtroyed, although Suwarrow in perſon led on the troops with the moſt undaunted fortitude, in order, if poſſible, to check the centre of the French army, which he could not force by every effort in his power. Moreau, upon whom the command devolved after the fall of General Joubert, fought in perſon, and performed, as well as the Generals St. Cyr and Deſolles, prodigies of valour.

Mean while, General Melas, with eight battalions of grenadiers, and ſix of Auſtrian infantry, which formed the left wing of the army, having reached the firſt heights of Novi, on the ſide of Pictalle, and diſpatched General Nobili's corps along the left bank of the Scrivia, attempted to turn entirely the right of the French army; he reached Serravalla, which he unblockaded; he took poſſeſſion alſo of Aquata, and marched on by the road of Serravalla upon Novi. He attacked the right flank of the French with General Frolich's diviſion; the front of this attack was formed by the firſt battalion of Furſtenberg, and by the brigade of General Luſignan, who, in the firſt charge, was vigorouſly repulſed, deſperately wounded, and made priſoner. General Melas ſupported this column, which formed the right and the chief ſtrength of his attack, by a ſecond under the command of General Laudohn; a third, headed by the Prince of Lichtenſtein, had orders to paſs the line of the French to the rear of their right, ſeizing at the ſame time, on whatever advantageous points ſhould be found in the interval

vals of the columns. Melas ſtrengthened this movement by batteries correſponding to the direction of the troops;—this manœuvre decided the victory.

Towards five in the evening, General Melas attacked in flank with the grenadiers of Paar, the poſt of Novi, which had coſt ſo much blood from the beginning of the action, and which Moreau had juſt reinforced in this part, to cover the retreat, which he now ordered; the French were conſtrained to abandon it, finding themſelves almoſt ſurrounded; the column of the Prince of Lichtenſtein, having cut off their communication with Govi, they could retreat only by their left flank upon Ovado. This retreat, was at firſt executed in good order; but the artillery having choked up the road in paſſing through the village of Paſturano, the diviſion which formed the rearguard found the village ſo encumbered, that, forced to halt, it was thrown into diſorder, and ſoon overtaken by the corps of General Karackey, whom Suwarrow had ſent in purſuit of the retreating troops. The French generals Perignon, Grouchy, and Panthenau, made the laſt exertions to rally this rearguard, but all their efforts were in vain.—All the three Generals were wounded and made priſoners, as well as the Piedmonteſe General Colli. Night put an end to the combat.

The French had defended, not only with valour, but with the courage that deſpair inſpires, againſt the multiplied attacks of troops, equally valiant, but greatly ſuperior in number, a poſition very ſtrong by its nature, and covered by trees and buſhes, which rendered acceſs to it very difficult on every ſide. This poſition was ſtill more formidable by a numerous artillery, advantageouſly placed, and very well ſerved. But in the ſame degree that their confidence had been ſupported through the whole of the day by theſe advantages of ground, and by the little ſucceſs of the attacks of General Kray's corps, and of the Ruſſian diviſions againſt the left and the centre, ſo was the loſs of the French great, and their retreat precipitate, when

when General Melas, by his able manœuvres, had ſucceeded in diſlodging their right.

Such was this dreadful battle at Novi; and, if we except the battle of Malplaquet, gained by the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene againſt Marſhall de Villars 1709, where 30,000 men periſhed,—and that of Frankfort on the Oder in 1750, between the Pruſſians and Ruſſians, when Frederic II. left nearly 20,000 men in the field of battle, and did not abandon it, till he made as horrible a carnage of the Ruſſian infantry,—no other battle in this century was as bloody as that of Novi. The loſs on both ſides is eſtimated at the loweſt amount, to 25,000 men.—As at Malplaquet, the two armies, engaged on all points of their line, did not ceaſe deſtroying each other, as long as the day laſted; or, as at the battle of Frankfort, where General Laudohn's fine manœuvre decided the victory, the advantage at Novi remained uncertain, till the moment when General Melas ſucceeded in turning the right wing of the French.

Upon the contemplation of theſe ſcenes of bloodſhed and of death, we are ready to hope, for the ſake of humanity, that the accounts officially given us of the numbers of the ſlain are exaggerated; it may be ſo in ſome degree; but one of the principal cauſes of this carnage in engagements, and which rage during the war was continually encreaſing, was the mode of fighting the troops, adopted by the reſpective commanders of the hoſtile armies. For, inſtead of viewing at a prudent diſtance the operations of their own and of the enemies in the field of battle, and conveying their orders by their aides-de-camps, in theſe late conflicts their heroic intrepidity incited the Generals on both ſides to lead on their troops in perſon, expoſing themſelves to the thickeſt of the danger, and raiſing even to enthuſiaſm (ſuch is the expreſſion in the official reports on both ſides) the courage of their ſoldiers, and inſpiring a military fanaticiſm.

Joubert

Joubert fell a victim of this thirſt of glory; inſtead of placing himſelf at firſt within reach of judging, by Suwarrow's firſt movements, of his principal plan, and reſerving himſelf, in order to ſtrike deciſive ſtrokes at the proper time and place, when he ſhould have diſcovered it, he ran the riſk of heading, at the beginning of the action a charge of bayonets, againſt the firſt corps that moved,—he fell! and this barren honour deprived his army, from the firſt motion, of the ſoul which animated its movements. His place, without all doubt, was ably filled by General Moreau, who had the ſecret of his plan, but had not the ſentimental reſources of his inventive mind; and never, during the action, is the loſs of him who commands ſufficiently ſupplied even by another of ſuperior talents.

The French army retreated, during the night, to the Appenines, purſued by General Karackzy, who had taken poſſeſſion at Poſturano of a part of the field-artillery. Moreau covered his retreat, by occupying the red mountain, where General St. Cyr poſted himſelf with his diviſion within reach of defending, towards the road of Gair, the approaches to the Bochetta; the reſt of the French army rallied by degrees, and reſumed its former poſitions. Moreau went to Geneva, and preſſed General Championet to go and take the command, to which he was named a ſhort time after by the directory, who had decreed the army of the Alps to that of Italy.

General Suwarrow generouſly attributed the whole honour of the victory of Novi to General Melas, which, however, was ſo diſputed, that the allies could draw no other advantages from it for the moment, than the certainty of taking the citadel of Tortona, againſt which the attack was now more vigorouſly directed. It had hitherto been conducted ſlowly on account of the rockineſs of the ſoil; the weakening alſo of the French army, and the means thereby of detaching towards Switzerland a body of troops conſiderable enough to ſupport the left of the Auſtrian army; or, if it were too late to re-

re-eſtabliſh its poſitions, to cloſe at leaſt on that ſide the entrance into Italy. General Kray, with a part of his diviſion, was charged with this diverſion, and marched towards the valleys by Novara. Suwarrow, after thus detaching his right wing, and odering General Melas to obſerve the French army, which kept its advanced poſts on the reverſe of the Appenines, marched with the centre towards Aſti, to hinder the junction of Championet with the army of Joubert, or at leaſt to oblige him to form it beyond the Alps, and decide him to evacuate the Ligurian republic. This movement towards the French Alps, had alſo for its object, to retain the troops which occupied this frontier in their poſitions, and to oblige Championet rather to ſtrengthen than weaken it; by this movement the allies alſo covered the ſiege of Coni, for which it became neceſſary to take advantage of the remainder of the fine ſeaſon.

The citadel of Tortona had capitulated on condition that the place ſhould not be given up to the allies till ten days after, provided alſo that during that time it received no ſuccour. The ſituation of Genoa became every day more critical: General Klenau, who had taken poſſeſſion of Fort St. Maria, and of Siſtri di Levante, advanced on that ſide, and Admiral Nelſon blocked up the port with a ſquadron. The inhabitants ſuffered ſeverely by a famine; the French, however, did not abandon this city, ſo important in the wars of Italy—the prey of the conquerors, and the laſt reſource of the conquered.

The Bochetta, however, was not attacked, and the entrenched poſition of the French army in the Ligurian republic, continued unbroken. General Klenau, having puſhed his poſts further along the coaſt, where the frigates of the Engliſh ſquadron protected his march, was anxious to attack Recca, an important poſt, four leagues diſtant from Genoa; he was repulſed by the diviſion, under General Miolis which covered Genoa on the eaſt between the road of Bobbio and the

ſea. Moreau, who was perſonally preſent in this action, ſupported Miolis's diviſion with 1,500 men, commanded by General Watrin, who, having turned Klenau's right wing by the heights of Toriglia and Fontana Cona, attacked him in flank, while Miolis met him in front. Klenau, after ſuffering conſiderable loſs, was forced to retreat upon the mountain by Rappallo.

Championet, the new General of the French army in Italy detached towards the Col de Tende, by the valley of Barcellonette, whatever forces he could diſpoſe, which were to be employed, as has already been obſerved, at the moment of the general attack in Switzerland and in Italy, to make diverſions by his right on Coni and Feneſtrelles, blocked up by the allies, and by his left on Mount Cenis and the Novelleſe, on St. Bernard and the valley of Auſt. Theſe different attacks on the whole frontier of the Alps and of Piedmont took place (from the 13th to the 15th of Auguſt) on the ſame day, and on the ſame hours, as the battles of Zurich and St. Gothard, and the terrible battle of Novi. The poſt of the Tuile, on Mount St. Bernard, was carried, ſword in hand, by General Compans; the troops of Mount Cenis took poſſeſſion of the Ferriere and the Novelleſe; thoſe of Mount Genierre marched upon Oulx and Exiles; the advanced guard of the camp of Fournoux on the Ubraye, led on by General Flavigny, ſeized on the important poſt of Barricades.

Such were the movements and attacks of the intermediary army of the Alps, ſcarcely formed under Championet. The troops which, under the command of General Moreau, were to form the army of the Rhine, and which were already aſſembled, under the proviſionary command of General Muller, between Mentz and Manheim, did not execute the meaſure which had been concerted, that of dividing the attention of the Archduke, till the latter end of Auguſt, fifteen days after the actions in Switzerland and Italy.

The

The object of this expedition was to draw off from the right side of the Rhine, and the banks of the Neckar and the Mein, such resources as the Imperial army would have found in those quarters, and also to secure such places and posts as might contribute to favour its march towards the Lower Rhine.

General Muller had established his head-quarters (August 25th) at Manheim; his advanced guard had marched towards Heidelberg and Schwitzengen, and he detached another column of troops on the right side. After having issued two proclamations, one to his army, to recommend respect to property, so often violated in this unfortunate country; another to the inhabitants, to engage them to remain at their homes, and to dissuade them from defending themselves. Muller marched upon Schwitzengen, and afterwards upon Wisloch. Heidelberg was occupied by the French, after dislodging Szeckler's hussars.

At the same time, General Baraguy d'Hilliers, commanding the left of the army of the Rhine, left Mentz with a corps composed of infantry, of light troops, and horse artillery, which had been drawn from the garrisons of Ehrenbreitstein and Mentz. This corps was divided into two parts; the first marched towards Frankfort, and the second towards Aschaffenburg: that which appeared before Frankfort took possession of the gates and of all the exterior posts. The French general at first demanded the delivery of considerable magazines of clothing, which he was assured had been made for the Imperial army. After a negociation which lasted two days, d'Hilliers imposed a contribution of 528,000 livres; he afterwards raised this kind of blockade, passed the Mein at the bridge of Sachenhausen, and, marching by Bergstros into the country of Darmstadt, reached (September 1st) Heidelberg, where he joined General Muller's division. These Generals had pushed their advanced guards as far as Heilbron; but after having carried off or destroyed the magazines, they were forced to retreat on the approach

of

of the dragoons of Latour, who had marched to the ſupport of Szecklar's huſſars. A body of Imperial troops had aſſembled in haſte between Heilbron and Ludwiſburg; General Meerveldt marched alſo a part of General Stzary's diviſion by the two roads of Radſtadt and Pfarzheim, and drove back the advanced guards of the French.

On the firſt news of the movements of the French towards Suabia (Auguſt 27th), the Archduke detached from Schaffenhauſen eight battalions of Auſtrian infantry, of which part took the road of Villengen, and the other that of Briſgaw. A ſuccour more conſiderable, perhaps, from the opinion and confidence which it re-eſtabliſhed among the people of thoſe unfortunate countries, and from the conſequences of this national inſurrection, the general riſing of the peaſants, or the land-ſtrum, invited by the proclamations of the Elector of Mentz, to the defence of their homes, and organized by the Baron d'Albini. This miniſter had diſcovered conſiderable energy in the beginning of the negociations of Radſtadt; he put himſelf at the head of the land-ſtrum, commanded, under his direction, by General de Faber; the armed peaſants united themſelves to the Auſtrians, and routed a French party near Selingenſtadt. The Elector allowed his national guard field pay, and bound himſelf to continue it till the aſſembling of the Imperial army permitted him to diſband the land-ſtrum. A third only of the inhabitants were obliged to be under arms, and were to be relieved every eight days by one of the two other thirds that remained in the communes. Foot and horſe of the line were mingled with the peaſants, in the proportion of one man to ten, and charged to inſtruct them in military manœuvres.

This ſudden alarm, ſpread through the electorate of Mentz and the circle of Franconia, gave the allies an auxiliary force, which they had hitherto ſolicited in vain; and the ardour ſpreading itſelf as rapidly this time, as terror during the preceding invaſions, more than

than 30,000 men roſe in arms, a great number of which were ſent back. Corps of grenadiers and light-horſe were formed, to which were attached companies of artillery, and ſquadrons of Szeckler's huſſars. The Baron d'Albini gave notice to the commander of Mentz, that if he ſuffered any of the German national guards to be ſhot, he would make reprifals on the French national guards whom the fate of war might throw into his hands. This new army croſſed Frankfort, occupied the banks of the Mein, and threatened Mentz. The neutrality of the Landgrave was reſpected; he himſelf was faithful in obſerving it, and in order to ſupport it, increaſed the garriſon of Darmſtadt. It is a remarkable example of the ſingular policy of modern times, to ſee, amidſt a people in arms, a territory, the inhabitants of which take no part in commotions which excite whole nations, defended by political conventions from the fire and ravages of war which ſurround it. Happy would it be for the maſs of mankind, if theſe principles were extended to the whole human race—ſacred faith, faithfully obſerved, and benevolence with its benign influence be univerſally extended! While this incurſion was made, which rather reſembled an extended foraging party, the French did not confine themſelves to threats againſt the inhabitants who had taken arms—ſeveral villages were ill-treated, and Sinzheim was reduced to aſhes. General Muller, after aſſembling his columns, had an army of about 18,000 men. He inveſted Philipſburg, ordered a bridge of boats to be towed up from Mentz, in order to ſecure his communications, and even his retreat, on the left ſide, took poſt on the Neckar, and began to bombard Philipſburg. The Rinegrave of Salm, the ſame who had ſo firmly anſwered the ſummons of General Bernadotte at the beginning of the campaign, commanded in theſe places. The garriſon compoſed of troops of the circles, had been ſince reinforced by a detachment of Auſtrian troops.

The

The Archduke had already reſigned the command of the allied army in Switzerland to General Hotze, and relieved the greateſt part of the Auſtrian diviſions in the entrenched poſitions at Zurich, by Ruſſian troops. Maſſena, taking advantage of theſe countermarches and frequent changes on the line of the Lake of Zurich, preſſed more cloſely upon the left of the allies. He had attacked anew, the Swiſs legions commanded by M. de Rovera: this engagement between the advanced poſts, where the Coſſacks fought for the firſt time, was followed by no reſult of importance. The Generals Soult and Molitor made a more vigorous attack on the poſts of Utznach and Glaris, and ſucceeded in taking more advantageous poſitions.

Theſe menacing movements of the French, had no influence on the Archduke to make him alter his poſition at Zurich, but he continued his movement on the righ flank, and croſſed the Rhine with a conſiderable body of Auſtrians, part of which marched on the ſide of Briſgaw. On the 4th of September he fixed his headquarters at Donawſhingen, from whence General Sizarray had marched to the relief of Philipſburg. This operation, and the new arrangements in the allied armies of Switzerland and Italy, were made not only to cover Suabia and check the French on the left ſide of the Rhine; a different repartition of the armies was about to take place: the counter-march of General Kray, who had already reached Milan, and received orders to retrogade with his diviſion, the re-union in Switzerland of the whole of the auxiliary Ruſſian army, in the pay of England, the march of the corps of the Prince of Conde' towards Schaffenhauſen, the formation of the Imperial army and that of the empire, under the command of the Archduke, in Suabia to the amount of 60,000 men, were the firſt indications of a new plan of operations, ſince the active and vigorous defence of the French, in ſpite of the conſtant reverſes, and immenſe loſſes they had experienced, in men and ſtores of every kind, had defeated all the projects of the allies, whole

whoſe loſſes, not leſs conſiderable, rendered the further execution of their plans impracticable at that moment

Before we ſlightly take a further view of the internal affairs of the French republic, we ſhall here finiſh the recital of this general attack, of this ſeries of actions, in which about 300,000 men were engaged at the ſame time, with equal fury, from the Gulph of Genoa to the Lower Rhine, without any deciſive advantage reſulting either to the French government, or the coalition, without even any material change in their reſpective poſitions from this terrible ſhock, by which both parties, alternately conquerors, and conquered, were every where equally exhauſted Impreſſed, without doubt, with this ſtate of things, favourable upon the whole to the republic, loſing all hope of retaking before the ſeaſon cloſed, his former poſitions on the High Alps, unable to recover the advantages which he had loſt in ſacrificing to the ſafety of the army of Italy, and to the glory of Suwarrow, that part of his forces which were deſtined to pierce into the valley of the Aar, having no longer troops enough to throw Maſſena on his left, and force him to abandon his impregnable poſition, by which he covered the weakeſt part of the frontiers of France, the Archduke was about to change, or rather extend his plan of operations; he conſidered the whole of Switzerland as a ſingle point, where the French government had collected the greater part of its forces, and diſpoſed him to act on the flanks, and chiefly on the left flank, of this vaſt and formidable poſition, by turning on the ſide of Italy and Alſace, that maſs of mountains, that theatre ſteeped in blood, exhauſted and depopulated, and where a numerous cavalry could neither ſubſiſt nor act.

Before we pain the ſenſations of our readers with laying before them ſcenes of blood and death; we will relieve their minds by calling their attention, for a few minutes, to a moſt auguſt and genuine diſplay of loyalty and patriotiſm exhibited in the vicinity

nity of the metropolis this ſummer. It powerfully demonſtrated, that however diſcordant the ſentiments of Britons, both in and out of the houſe of parliament, were, reſpecting the war; yet reſpecting the internal defence of their country, their ſentiments were but one. This was ſhewn by the chearful and gallant manner in which they ſtood forth in arms, ready to receive the enemy, ſhould they be hardy enough to attempt the invaſion of our *ſea-girt Iſle*.

June 21ſt, 1799.—This day, in purſuance of his Majeſty's intention previouſly intimated to the different volunteer corps in and about the metropolis, he honoured them with his royal inſpection. His Majeſty mounted his horſe at Buckingham-houſe at nine o'clock, and proceeding by Weſtminſter-bridge, he found, drawn up between the Aſylum and the Obeliſk, the Surry corps, amounting, according to the returns, to 1596 men.—Having paſſed theſe with the uſual ſalute, his Majeſty entered the city by Blackfriars-bridge. At the Surry end of the bridge, the King was met by the Lord Mayor with the city ſword, which he, according to cuſtom, preſented to his Majeſty, and which was moſt graciouſly returned. The grenadier company of the Eaſt London militia, with Sir Watkin Lewes at their head, formed a guard for the Lord Mayor.

His Majeſty, preceded by the Lord Mayor and Sheriffs on horſeback, and uncovered, purſued his route along Bridge-ſtreet, Black-friars, and St. Paul's Church yard, towards the Royal Exchange. Bridge-ſtreet contained 1054, and St. Paul's Church yard 1000 men under arms. The Royal Exchange and the Bank were next viſited; whence his Majeſty proceeded to the India Houſe and Tower Hill. Before tracing further his Majeſty's route, it will be proper to refer to the ſervices of the light-horſe volunteers, previous to their being inſpected by the King. This corps formed on their own parade at eight o'clock in the morning. Two ſquadrons of horſe, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel

Colonel Beachcroft, were marched off, and took poſt from Blackfriars-bridge to St. Paul's Church-yard, to keep a clear paſſage for his Majeſty. The centre ſquadron of horſe, with the diſmounted ſquadron, conſiſting of three troops, marched, under the command of Colonel Boſanquet, for Finſbury-ſquare, where they took poſt upon the right of the honourable artillery company. After his Majeſty had paſſed St. Paul's, the two ſquadrons of light-horſe volunteers returned to Gray's Inn-lane, where they were inſpected by the Earl of Chatham, and then marched to Iſlington, to receive his Majeſty. Colonel Herries, with ſix file, preceded his Majeſty about five minutes through the whole of the route, and afterwards received his Majeſty at the head of half the regiment in Finſbury-ſquare, and again in front of the cavalry at Iſlington. His Majeſty came from Tower Hill to Finſbury-ſquare, which he entered on the ſouth-eaſt corner. He proceeded along the ſouth ſide, and firſt paſſed the light-horſe volunteers, and then the honourable artillery company, who had his royal highneſs the Prince of Wales at their head, who is their Captain-general. Several other corps were drawn up on the eaſt ſide of the ſquare. His Majeſty, after paſſing the corps in the ſquare, went out by the north-weſt corner towards Iſlington. The appearance in Finſbury-ſquare was conſidered as particularly brilliant. After paſſing the corps drawn up at Iſlington, his Majeſty rode on by the new road, and down the Duke of Bedford's private road to the Lord Chancellor's, where an elegant entertainment was prepared. His Majeſty arrived there about one o'clock. About an hour afterwards, her Majeſty and five Princeſſes, accompanied by the Duke of Clarence, came to the Lord Chancellor's; and the royal family then ſat down to their collation. About three his Majeſty again mounted, and proceeded down Guildford-ſtreet to the Foundling Hoſpital. In Guildford-ſtreet were drawn up a regiment of the Tower Hamlets, and Mile-end volunteers, the latter com-

manded by Mr. Liptrap. Theſe corps had drawn themſelves up in White-chapel in the morning; but finding his Majeſty could not get ſo far down, they made a forced march, and ranged themſelves in Guildford-ſtreet, that they might have the honour of receiving him as he paſſed. The Queen with the Princeſſes entered the ground, and the carriages being drawn up to the Hoſpital, the whole roval family alighted, and viewed the foundling children's apartments, &c. in which amiable and condeſcending attention, the illuſtrious viſitors were occupied for nearly an hour.

On his departure from the Foundling Hoſpital, his Majeſty returned by Guildford-ſtreet, and ſtriking down the new road, galloped by Marybone and Paddington towards Hydepark. Here were drawn up, to receive his Majeſty, fronting the north gate, the regiment of life-guards, commanded by Lord Cathcart. In a line, extending from the north ſide of the park towards Hydepark corner, were arranged the Weſtminſter cavalry, the St. George's volunteers, with the Earl of Cheſterfield at their head, the Royal Weſtminſter, the Knight-marſhal, &c. &c. all of which paid his Majeſty a general ſalute as he approached their colours. After paſſing this line, his Majeſty, with his ſuite, proceeded down Conſtitution-hill to the Queen's palace, which he reached about five o'clock. His Majeſty, in this magnificent review, was attended by their royal highneſſes the Prince of Wales, the Dukes of York, Kent, Cumberland, and Glouceſter, and an immenſe concourſe of general and other officers. The metropolis of the Britiſh empire never preſented a prouder, or more delightful ſpectacle. The ſtreets, windows, and houſe-tops, were every where crowded with people, all vying who ſhould moſt loudly expreſs their feelings of reſpect and affection for his Majeſty's perſon. Many of the ſpectators aſſembled in the chapel of the Foundling Hoſpital, where the children's hymn, and God ſave the King, were ſung before the whole royal family. The following is a return of the

ſtrength

ſtrength of the volunteer forces at the different ſtations.

	Men.
St. George's Fields — —	1598
Bridge-ſtreet, Blackfriars —	1054
St. Paul's Church yard —	1000
Royal Exchange and Bank —	1011
India Houſe — —	500
Tower Hill — —	1138
Goodman's Fields — —	823
Finſbury-ſquare — —	802
Iſlington — — —	394
Foundling Hoſpital —	1230
Hydepark — — —	2700
Total	12310

We ſhall cloſe this account of the grand review with ſubjoining his Majeſty's high ſatisfaction upon the occaſion, as conveyed in a circular letter iſſued by his royal highneſs the Duke of York, commander in chief of the Britiſh forces.

His royal highneſs the commander in chief is anxious to take the earlieſt opportunity of obeying the orders he has received from his Majeſty, to convey to the different volunteer corps inſpected by his Majeſty this morning the heart-felt ſatisfaction which every part of their conduct has excited in his mind. To his Majeſty, it is a ſource of unremitting gratification to know, that this general diſplay of loyalty and public ſpirit is the genuine offſpring of a conſtitution, eminently calculated to preſerve the happineſs, and to encreaſe the proſperity of his people. His Majeſty, having ever made it the principal ſtudy of his life to watch over and maintain, unimpaired, thoſe ſafeguards which the laws of this happy country have provided for the ſecurity of its civil and religious rights, eagerly embraces this opportunity of expreſſing the juſt pride he derives from the gratifying feeling, that his uniform endeavours, during

during a long reign, to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, have enſured to him the continuance of their loyalty and affection. Deeply impreſſed with the unequivocal and general manifeſtation of this zealous attachment to his Majeſty, called forth on the preſent occaſion, his royal highneſs, from every motive of duty, public and private, feels peculiar pleaſure in communicating his Majeſty's ſentiments to the ſeveral corps which have been this day under arms in the metropolis and its vicinity.

FREDERIC, F. M.

We ſhall now for a little turn our attention towards the internal diſorders of the French republic, and then enter more immediately upon the hiſtory of the war.

We have already obſerved, that the directory had, by Sieyes's motion, ſhut up the Jacobin club in Paris; but this was no more than lopping off one of the heads of this anarchical hydra; and the monſter had multiplied itſelf, and ſtill continued to threaten, from various points, the ruin of the republic. From Amiens in the north to the Mediterranean, from the eaſtern frontier to Rochefort, the ſame ſpirit of diſorganization and inſubordination prevailed; and, as if the conſpiracy ſpoken of in the council of elders, had not been a figure, exploſions in thoſe different latitudes took place (Auguſt 6th) on the ſame day. Toulouſe, the great focus of Jacobiniſm in the ſouth of France, where the excluſive patriots had, ſince the 30th of Praireal, reigned unrivalled, became the theatre of civil contention, and was on the point of being beſieged by an army of 16,000 royaliſts, who were ſet in motion by the manœuvres of the Jacobins. This royaliſt army had marched from the neighbouring departments, under experienced leaders, with all the apparatus of war, proclaiming Louis XVIII. and re-eſtabliſhing in the various communes through which they paſſed, as far as lay in their power, the ancient order of things. Various conflicts took place in the country around Toulouſe

louſe between the republican columns and thoſe of the royaliſts, the latter of whom, after a ſevere engagement, were diſperſed, leaving upwards of 1,000 men in the field, with their commander in chief, and the whole of their artillery.

Bourdeaux was alſo for a time the theatre of Jacobinical diſorder. The municipal adminiſtration was in the hands of the excluſive patriots. In a fray, of which it appears that the officers of the police were the inſtigators, ſeveral citizens were killed and wounded; others were impriſoned; and that commune exhibited, for a time, thoſe ſcenes of affright and conſternation, which marked the days of the reign of terror. In diſcuſſing the meaſures neceſſary for ſuppreſſing theſe dangerous inſurrections, which all moderate perſons conſidered as the fruit of foreign inſtigation, General Jourdan repreſented the dangers with which the republic was threatened; the treaſon which had prepared the defeat of the armies; Italy loſt, for liberty; fortified places given up by perfidy, or forced to ſurrender for want of ſubſiſtence; the armies as a prey to dilapidators; the frontiers threatened; the Batavian republic invaded, and its fleets given up to the enemy, through the moſt baſe and infamous cowardice. Such he deſcribed the ſituation of affairs without; within, a vaſt royaliſt conſpiracy, he aſſerted, was thoroughly organized, having its committees and chiefs at Paris; on every ſide, the torches of civil war lighted, and the patriots ſacrificed. His advice was, to repoſe full confidence in the wiſdom and prudence of the council of the elders, and of the management of the preſent directory. Lucien Bonaparte, who on various occaſions had mounted the breach, even in the time when the late directory was, what they imagined themſelves, omnipotent, now preſented himſelf firſt at the tribune, and declared, that he knew but of two modes of ſaving the republic, that of plenary confidence in the directory, and likewiſe in the patriotic advice and council of the elders, who had ſo often ſaved the country, and would again ſave it.—

He

He reprobated the idea, that the preſent directory aimed at the dictatorſhip, which their enemies had ſo peremptorily attributed to them. He was ſeconded by the moſt eminent members of the aſſembly, and his opinion was adopted.

But the protection of the Batavian republic principally engaged their ſerious attention, as that republic was the great bulwark of the northern departments without the old line of the frontier of France.

As the topographical ſituation of Holland placed it beyond the reach of the allies till the northern territory of the French republic had been over-run by the coaleſced continental armies, the reſtoration of the ancient order of things in this part of Europe, the avowed end of the preſent deſtructive war, fell naturally to the lot of England; ſince, of all the enterpriſes which could be combined againſt the republic, none could be more deſirable to the Britiſh government, than the reeſtabliſhment of the Prince of Orange, which, while it deprived the French government of great reſources that might yet be drawn from this mine of wealth, not yet exhauſted, would oblige it to employ in that quarter a part of the forces deſtined to complete the army of the Rhine. The ſucceſs of this great diverſion would have ſecured to the allies the means of again opening the campaign in the Low Countries with an Engliſh, Ruſſian and Stadtholderian army, and of fomenting inſurrection among the inhabitants, a great proportion of which were ſtill ready for revolt. The raiſing up of the party of the Stadtholder by force of arms, was a leading object with the Britiſh cabinet, for being in poſſeſſion of the mother country, of all the colonies, and the Dutch marine, England would have it in her power to dictate, and ſo become miſtreſs of the peace; the Scheldt would have been cloſed, and ſuch a political dyke raiſed between France and Holland, as would ſecure to England the only guarantee of the duration of its influence on the continent.

It

It has never been publicly aſcertained whether the Britiſh cabinet had deferred this deciſive ſtroke till the moment when it might be ſuppoſed that the French, from their great reverſes, would be obliged to withdraw the reſt of their army from Holland to defend their own frontier; or whether the project of this tardy expedition had been really conceived at the moment when the Breſt fleet entered the Mediterranean; it was only about the beginning of the month of June that preparations for it began at Southampton and Yarmouth. The inſurrection in Ireland had been cruſhed; the French were too ſeriouſly engaged in every other direction to occaſion any further diſquietude at that ſeaſon; it was, therefore, in full ſecurity, that the Engliſh government combined with Ruſſia a grand continental expedition. This was to be under the direction of General Abercrombie, an able and experienced officer, and who, from a youth, was verſant in all the arts of war. This officer aſſembled at Southampton, a corps of twelve battalions, and a few troops of cavalry; but their deſtination was kept ſecret at the firſt. However, thoſe preparations were ſoon augmented, and puſhed on with the greateſt activity, and it was well known long before the expedition failed, that its deſtination was for Holland.

No doubt, the French ſoon had intelligence of ſuch formidable preparations, and probably derived ſome advantage from it; nor would it have been eaſily to have kept entirely ſecret its deſtination: nay, it is even probable, that the Britiſh miniſtry did not wiſh it to be concealed; for, as it was not ſimply a military operation, and as no doubt was entertained that the preſence alone of a fleet and army would arouſe the partizans of the houſe of Orange, and determine their reſolutions in favour of the extirpated Prince, and draw in the intimidated majority to receive the allies as deliverers, it appeared probable that the certain knowledge of the end of the expedition, the eclat and immenſity of the preparations, would not fail to encreaſe the

the confidence and boldneſs of the Engliſh party in Holland, and derange and diſorder in the ſame degree the councils and deſigns of the republicans. The collecting of an army of 20 or 25 000 men in two diviſions, the naming the roads and ports where the grand embarkment was to take place, at the mouth of the Thames; the Duke of York appointed general in chief; the news of an embarkment of a Ruſſian army on the Baltic; the declarations in favour of the Stadtholder; the arrival of the young hereditary Prince at Lingen; were the certain ſigns, the poſitive indications of the intentions of the Engliſh government.

But with all this publicity, reſpecting theſe important arrangements, with the force to be employed in carrying it into execution, the certain direction of the attack was carefully kept ſecret. The only ſtation of tranſports for the conveyance of the troops threatened Zealand, and the mouths of the Meuſe and the Scheldt; and, on the other ſide, the diſtance of the Ruſſians, their long navigation, the importance of a diverſion diametrically oppoſite, and towards the eaſtern provinces, which were looked upon as being beſt diſpoſed in favour of the Stadtholder, made it credited that the Ruſſians, entering by the Weſer and the Ems, would attack Weſt Frieſland and the province of Groningen. The magazines which they had begun to form at Bremin, the aſſembling of the officers in the ſervice of the former government of Holland at Lingen, ſerved to corroborate this conjecture. Thus, till the moment of departure, the attention of the Battavian government was neceſſarily divided and diverted from the point on which the allies had fixed their view. This point was the entrance of the Texel, where yet lay the remnant of the Dutch marine, the revolt and deſertion of which were certain, if the Engliſh ſucceeded in forcing the paſſage, in inſulating it from the land batteries, and reducing it to its own expedients. Such was the plan of the Britiſh government, to which the deſtruction of the Dutch fleet was alſo an object of importance. The unexpected

unexpected appearance of the combined French and Spaniſh fleets which had ſailed from Cadiz to Breſt, ſuſpended, for a few days, the operations, but ſecure with reſpect to the fate of Ireland: having, beſides, ſince the arrival of the fleet from the Mediterranean, which had followed the combined fleet to Breſt, forces more than ſufficient to watch the movements of the Breſt fleet, the miniſtry preſſed the departure of the advanced guard of General Abercombie, and Admiral Mitchel ſailed from the Downs, early in Auguſt, with about 130 tranſports, compoſing the different diviſions.

His royal highneſs the Duke of York, at the head of the ſecond diviſion, and appointed generaliſſimo, lay at Margate, and other places of embarkment, but was not to ſet ſail till news had been received of General Abercrombie's arrival at his deſtination. Theſe two diviſions of Engliſh troops were compoſed of thirty battalions of infantry, of 600 men each; of different corps of cavalry, amounting to 500 men each, and a fine train of artillery from the Tower of London, moſt of the pieces of braſs, making in all 27,000 men: The Ruſſian army, which was on its paſſage, amounted to about 18 or 20,000 men: ſo that the Duke of York, when the winds (which muſt have blown in contrary directions to aſſemble the whole of theſe combined troops) ſhould be favourable, would have under his command in Holland an army of at leaſt 45,000 men.

The force of the Dutch government conſiſted at that period of nine ſhips of the line, and a few frigates, under the command of Admiral Storey, anchored in the inner channel of the Texel, behind the iſland of this name, and the fort, or rather point of the Helder, the northern extremity of the province of Holland. Its regular land forces, raiſed with extreme difficulty, were eſtimated at about 20,000 men. It was but a ſhort time before, that the French government thought fit to excite the Dutch to form an army, and organize a national guard. This firſt act of independence was

judged to become neceſſary, ſince the army of 24,000 men, which, by the terms of the treaty, was to be kept up by the Batavian republic to garriſon its fortified towns, and defend its territory, was far from being complete. The Dutch had already complained, that, after having for a long period paid as a tribute, either in money or kind, for the ſupport of this auxiliary army, there was not in Holland the half of this force at the moment in which it was threatened with an invaſion. This complaint ſeemed to be founded in juſtice. The French government, preſſed by the attacks of the allied armies had been forced to march up the Rhine and into Switzerland a great part of the troops which were in Holland, and eſpecially the cavalry, which had been newly clothed and remounted there; ſo that there did not remain more than 8 or 10,000 men on the Dutch territory. General Brune, who commanded them, and whom the directory of the Batavian republic commiſſioned, in conformity to the treaty to take the command in chief of the troops of the two nations, and to make every diſpoſition for defence, made proviſion at firſt for that of Zealand, where he left a diviſion of French troops; and charging Generals Daendaels and Dumonceau, the one with the defence of the coaſts of the province of Holland, the other with that of the provinces of the eaſt, kept a reſerve ready to march upon whatever point was threatened.

We muſt, in the mean time, previous to our giving a diſtinct account of the arduous exertions of the two hoſtile powers, reſpecting the poſſeſſion of this rich prize, exhibit a ſhort repreſentation of the political ſtate of Holland, and the views and conduct of the three parties which then divided that nation. The anarchiſts, who for a year paſt had been anxious to regain the poſſeſſion of power, and to overthrow the moderate party, which had kept them in obedience with wiſdom and vigour, had then ceaſed their oppoſition to the meaſures of the directory, and ſerved the common intereſt of the friends of the new conſtitution, or rather the

the Anti-ſtadtholderian party. The partiſans of the houſe of Orange, ſeeing their cauſe ſupported by foreign forces ſo preponderant, waited, in ſilence, till ſome deciſive ſucceſs ſhould have deſtroyed the confidence which the government ſhewed in its means of defence; till a firſt, and poſſibly ſucceſsful, effort on the part of the allies ſhould have precipitated towards a decided change in favour of the re-eſtabliſhment of the Stadtholder; that ſluggiſh maſs, that crowd of men, who, in every country, in every revolution, have for the rule of their conduct, and the meaſure of their intereſt, only what may be termed the *inſtinct* of their own preſervation,—ingenious in covering with the ſemblance of wiſdom, their alternate deſertions from one party to another, quick and ardent in juſtifying their apoſtaſy, and making a parade of their devotedneſs and attachment to the ſucceſsful party.

Yet, amidſt all the internal convulſions with which the Dutch government was agitated, they had been more orderly and firm in their preparations, than had been expected. They preſſed the raiſing of levies, collected ſtores of every kind, and had neglected no means of defence. Freed in ſome meaſure from the peſtilent meaſures of Jacobins at home, they, however, entangled themſelves at this period, in a diſpute with thoſe of Paris, who, not ſatisfied with tormenting their own government, had reſolved upon the overthrow of the Batavian republic. With the ſame confidence that they publiſhed the conſpiracy of the French government in favour of royalty, they charged alſo every perſon who enjoyed an employment in the Batavian republic, particularly the ſupreme magiſtrates, with being ſhamefully ſold to the Stadtholder, and ſecretly co-operating in all the views of the England cabinet. At any other period than the preſent, theſe vague and ſlanderous aſſertions would have been accounted the offspring of diſappointed malice; but on the eve of a formidable war, when the government of an allied republic, ought to be like Cæſar's wife, not only not guilty, but free

ever

even of ſuſpicion, it was eſſential to deſtroy even the remoteſt idea reſpecting their fidelity towards the French nation, on whoſe protection their ſafety, in that alarming criſis, principally depended.

The Dutch ambaſſador at Paris, addreſſed a manly and energetic memorial to the miniſter of foreign affairs, in which thoſe Jacobinical calumnies were treated with contemptuous ſeverity, and the fidelity to the alliance on the part of his government put beyond the reach of gainſayers. His government adopted the language and ſentiments of the ſeaſonable addreſs which he had made, and the members of the French government did juſtice to their ally, as well as to themſelves, by ſuppreſſing a ſlanderous newſpaper, called the "Journal des Hommes Libres."—The "Journal of free men," and arreſting the publiſher;—a ſubject almoſt unworthy of occupying one line in the page of hiſtory, if this journal had not become the Jacobinical rival of the two governments, and been regarded as a ſort of independent power. The Batavian government had previouſly ſhown the falſehood of theſe irreconcileable enemies to all order and regular government, by their activity and zeal in the common defence; for, whatever be the exterior form of government, or the ſituation of parties, there exiſts a public ſpirit, a common ſentiment of independence, in every nation, the roots of which are more ancient than new revolutions.

The Britiſh ſquadron, under the command of Admiral Mitchel, met with unfavourable winds, by which ſome veſſels, ſeparated from the convoy by the ſtorm, or deſtined to throw the firſt alarm on points moſt diſtant from the real one in view, appeared on the coaſt of Zealand, and thoſe of Groningen and Eaſt Frieſland; but the Engliſh fleet, which were the real invaders, was ſoon diſcovered (Auguſt 19th), for the firſt time, on the coaſts of North Holland. The next day, Admiral Lord Duncan, whoſe fleet was joined by the ſquadron of Admiral Mitchel, ſent the Dutch admiral, Storey, a ſummons, or rather an invitation, to acknowledge

ledge the Prince of Orange, and to give his ſquadron the example, which it would not fail to follow, of hoiſting the Orange flag, and of going over to the Britiſh fleet; adding, by way of inducement, that 20,000 Engliſh were already landed at the Helder. Storey peremptorily anſwered in the negative, and the Batavian government took advantage of this incident, to ſupport the courage and ſpirit of the public by a proclamation. General Abercrombie ſent a ſimilar ſummons to the commander of the fort of the Helder, and met the ſame refuſal, expreſſed in terms of equal firmneſs, but founded in greater ſincerity than that of Storey.

It was not till the 26th of Auguſt that the winds became favourable; and on that ſame day the fleet, which had remained in view, anchored along the coaſt, from the mouth of the Texel, as far as Chalants-Oge: it was compoſed of fifteen ſhips of the line, from forty-five to fifty frigates, ſloops, and cutters, and about 130 tranſports. Early the next morning, General Abercrombie landed all his battalions of grenadiers and light infantry, under the protection of the guns of his fleet. Daendaels, who had united his diviſion at the Great Keeten, marched towards the Downs with a few battalions of light infantry. An engagement took place at the moment when the Engliſh were about to take poſſeſſion of the Downs and march forward. Colonel Luch was killed: the reſt of Daendaels's diviſion, the 5th demi-brigade, a regiment of cavalry, and a part of the horſe-artillery, came ſucceſſively up, and joined in the action. The advanced guard of the Engliſh, continually reinforced, gained ground: the Dutch battalion of Herbig charged with the bayonet, and was, in its turn, taken in flank by the Engliſh light-infantry. This warm engagement, which coſt the Engliſh about 1,000 men, laſted till four in the afternoon. The Dutch fought to a conſiderable diſadvantage, on the ſandy and unequal ſground of the Downs, on account of the heavy fire from the fleet, under

under which they could not prevent the landing from taking place: on that account, they were obliged to abandon the ſhore to the invaders, and General Daendaels withdrew to his firſt poſition at Keeten. Finding himſelf, therefore, cut off from the Helder, he ſent orders to General Guilquin, the commander, to ſpike the cannon of the batteries, and inſtantly to retreat by the dyke Kœgras, and rally on his right.

This manœuvre preſerved, indeed, the garriſon of the Helder, which was neceſſary for the ulterior defence of the country, but it opened the Texel to the Engliſh fleet; whilſt, if the garriſon had quitted the Helder ſooner, and left a rearguard, it might have acted on the flanks of the Engliſh at the moment of landing, and, according to the event of the combat, have gone back to their poſt, or retreated with the reſt of the troops under Daendaels. Such was the opinion then of military men. But it is almoſt impoſſible to hinder a landing, protected by a powerful ſquadron of ſhips of war, and on an open ſhore. There is but one moment to ſeize, that in which the firſt troops are eſtabliſhing themſelves, and looking for a poſition, in order to take advantage of the firſt ſhock, produced by a briſk and general attack.

General Daendaels kept his poſition during the two following days, his left was at Petten, the centre at Zaud, and the right at Keeten. He had ſcarcely 8,000 men, comprehending the garriſon of the Helder; his left, below which the Engliſh might, in purſuing the coaſt, effect a landing, ſeemed but badly ſituated; this determined him to make a retrograde movement; he therefore declined battle with his right wing, which had fallen back the following day (Auguſt 30th) to Avenhorn, his left behind Petten, and his centre at Schermerhoorne, in which poſition he found himſelf more within the reach of receiving reinforcements from the French and Dutch troops, who were directing themſelves from every ſide, by forced marches, towards

wards North Holland, when no further uncertainty reſpecting the point of attack remained.

In about three days after, General Brune reached Alkmaar (September 2d), and took a poſition with his diviſion on the left of the line. General Abercrombie, maſter of the point, or peninſula of the Helder, completed his landing, entrenched his advanced poſts towards his right, and occupied with his left the point of the Helder, and the batteries which had been evacuated. From that moment the paſſage of the Texel was alſo occupied by the Engliſh, and Admiral Storey was obliged to quit his anchorage to put back into the Vlieter, the channel towards the north, in order to be out of reach. A great part of the Engliſh convoy and frigates having anchored in the road of the Texel, and the wind from the north having freſhened, Admiral Storey determined to take advantage of the firſt tide to fall down into the road, and chaſe or deſtroy the convoy. It was at this moment, that a revolt broke out amongſt the crew of the Waſhington, under the ridiculous pretence that the Admiral wiſhed to blow them up. During the night, the ſailors had armed themſelves and ſeized the powder-room; the officers made vain and unavailing efforts to reſtrain and reduce them to obedience: the puniſhment of a few ringleaders of the inſurrection, acts of rigour, entreaties, all were to no purpoſe; and the Captains deſpaired of being able to decide their crews to fire a ſingle gun. Amidſt this diſorder, the Engliſh fleet entered the road of the Texel (Auguſt 30th), and eleven ſhips of the line, ſix frigates, and four ſloops, under the command of Admiral Mitchel, penetrated into the Vlieter, with a favourable wind and tide:—a part of this ſquadron was compoſed of the veſſels taken the year before by Lord Duncan. In this extremity, Admiral Storey attempted to gain time; and propoſed, by two officers, a ſort of ſuſpenſion of arms, during which he might have time to conſult his government. Admiral Mitchel, who was on board the Iſis frigate, and had juſt finiſhed his

his preparations for the attack, anſwered the propoſal of the Dutch admiral by a categorical ſummons to hoiſt immediately the Orange flag. Storey gave the ſignal for clearing for battle, which became at once the ſignal of a general defection; the crews unloaded the pieces, and threw the balls and cartridges into the ſea; the Captains of the reſpective ſhips met in council, and declared that the revolt of their crews was ſo general, that all hopes of ſubordination were at an end, and that in theſe circumſtances they could not fight the Engliſh. Van Senden alone, commander of La Batave, aſſured them that his ſhip was perfectly under orders, and that he would defend himſelf if the Admiral ſet him the example. Storey anſwered the ſummons of Admiral Mitchel, by proteſting his fidelity to the Batavian republic, inveighing, in indignant terms, againſt the treaſon and cowardice of his crews, and declaring himſelf priſoner of war, as well as all his officers. The ſame evening, the Orange flag, which for two days paſt floated on the towers and batteries of the Texel and the Helder, was hoiſted on all the veſſels of the Dutch fleet. Beſides that fleet, compoſed of eight ſhips of the line, and three frigates, which ſurrendered to Admiral Mitchel, three ſhips of the line, five frigates, and five Eaſt India veſſels, were taken in the Nieuve Diep, as well as the artillery and ſtores which were in the place.

Thus the States of Holland, once ſo formidable with their powerful fleets, had not the appearance of a warlike marine force, except a few veſſels diſperſed in the ports of Zealand; and it is not one of the leaſt of the political ſingularities which characterize the end of the preſent century, to ſee the Dutch without marine, forming a land-army to defend the entrance to Amſterdam by the ſea;—to ſee them defending their ſand-banks and marſhes againſt the Prince of Orange, and the Britiſh forces giving battle on ſwamps, and taking military poſitions between canals,—a kind of warfare, the antipodes of that of the mountains, preſenting, never

nevertheleſs, almoſt as great obſtacles, without offering the ſame advantages. Cavalry and horſe-artillery, two armies ſufficiently numerous for a campaign in the Low Countries, compoſed of 80,000 men, take their poſitions on this faithleſs and almoſt floating ſoil, and mingle in horrid fray, amidſt a labyrinth of dykes and marſhes.

It was certainly a capital miſtake in the Batavian government, not to have provided againſt the defection of their fleet, eſpecially as the mutinous diſpoſition of their crews was not unknown to them; this circumſtance, however, leading General Abercrombie to preſume that the Batavian government would be diſpoſed to enter into negociation with him, before the arrival of the French troops, demanded from General Daendaels an eſcort or paſſport for General Don, who was to offer at the Hague particular communications from the Engliſh government. This paſſport was poſitively refuſed; but General Abercrombie was invited to ſend his communications in writing. The government ſought to efface the impreſſion which this overture might make on the public, and ſent a commiſſion, compoſed of the director Vanhoeft, and of four repreſentatives of both chambers, to General Brune at Alkmaar, to teſtify to him, and to make known to the army, the firm reſolution of the Batavian government to defend itſelf to the laſt extremity. The publication of new aſſurances of ſpeedy and efficient ſuccours, made by the French directory, come in aid of thoſe marks of confidence.

General Abercrombie having completely effected the landing of his army, and the attack of North Holland entirely decided on, Brune directed by Haerlem upon Alkmaar all the forces that were at his diſpoſal. Means were alſo taken for the defence of Amſterdam on the ſide of the Zuyder-Zee, and the ſlip of land called Buick-ſlot, the proximity of which might have led to apprehenſions of a bombardment. The Batavian diviſion, under General Dumonceau, of 6,000 men, paſſed through Amſterdam (September 3d), and all the

French troops who were on the ſide of the Hague, and on the coaſts, or towards the mouth of the Meuſe, filed off by Egmont towards Alkmaar. In every village the citizens took arms; requiſitions for two, three, or five hundred men, in different towns, were anſwered by the ſudden appearance of eight, ten, or twelve hundred; and in ſome places the whole of the inhabitants marched to join the army of North Holland.

While theſe reinforcements were arriving on every ſide, the Engliſh moved forward, and took poſt in the Zyp, a low and interſected ground, about eight miles in extent, at the entrance of the peninſula, and covered by a dyke, behind which they entrenched themſelves, defending it with a numerous artillery; the advanced poſts of their right extended from Petten to Einigenburg; thoſe of the centre a little behind, and parallel to the great dyke, were at St. Martin's Volkoog, and Schagen; thoſe of their left at Havinghuyſen and Zydewind.

In order to concentrate his forces, Brune (September 4th) made the French and Batavian diviſions change their poſition by their left, and take poſt before Alkmaar. He marched the advanced poſts to Schrool and Groot, the neareſt poſſible to the ſea, and the advenced guard of the right of the Engliſh army. Skirmiſhes took place between the advanced poſts towards the centre of the two armies on the ſide of Oud-Carſpel and Dirkſhoorne.

Mean while, the Engliſh army had as yet received no other reinforcements than a part of the Duke of York's diviſion, conſiſting of 4 or 5,000 men, under General Don; the Ruſſian army, commanded by Generals Hermen and Eſſen, had not been met at ſea by the aviſo which had been ſent to order them to ſteer towards the Texel, but met ſucceſſively at the point of rendezvous, at Yarmouth, where they were detained by contrary winds, which did not permit them to turn back; the reſt of the Engliſh troops, among which was the greateſt part of the cavalry, and the Duke of York himſelf,

himſelf, on board the Amethyſt frigate, were detained from the ſame cauſe. General Abercrombie, entrenched behind Zyp, had only between 16 and 17,000 men; his buſineſs was to avoid a general engagement, and wait the junction of the allied forces. On the contrary, General Brune had already collected in his poſition at Alkmaar between 24 and 25,000 men. General Vandamme arrived from Bruſſels, and Kellerman, the inſpector general, gave him notice of freſh ſuccours from the garriſons of the Low Countries. The moment was favourable, and he made the attack at the point of day; he, in perſon, led on the column of the left, compoſed of French troops; the two others, compoſed of Dutch troops, were commanded, the centre by General Dumonceau, the right by General Daendaels.

The French column advanced by Groſt and Kampf towards Petten, carried theſe entrenched poſts, and reached the heights of Houndſbosduynen. The Engliſh, behind the head of Zyp dyke, where they had conſtructed redoubts, were alſo protected by the fire of two frigates and two brigs which had run cloſe to ſhore. The French having turned the dyke, found themſelves entirely open, and taken in flank by this terrible fire. Thirty grenadiers having attempted to ſwim acroſs the canal, in order to ſcale theſe laſt entrenchments, were all drowned; General David was mortally wounded. Obliged to decline their attack, the French, after conſiderable loſs, maintained themſelves in the poſt of Petten, but evacuated it in the afternoon, and fell back to their firſt poſition.

The centre was ſtill leſs ſucceſsful. General Dumonceau marched at firſt by Shoreldam, attacked and carried the entrenchments at Krubbendam, but he could not force the entrenchments of the Zyp; ſome battalions gave way altogether, and he was compelled to fall back. The right wing, which had marched forwards with great ardour, was thrown into the greateſt diſorder by the cries of "Save who can, we are entirely ſurrounded!" which came from the end of the column,

lumn, and which led the greater part of General Daendaels's infantry to take flight.

After this general and fruitleſs attack, which coſt much blood, the French and Batavian army reſumed its former poſition; the left a little below Petten, and the advanced poſts of the centre at Schoreldam. New reinforcements poured into the Batavian army. General Brune ordered the authors of the route to be tried by a court-martial, and the conduct of other officers to be examined. The day that this action took place (September 10th) the Duke of York left Yarmouth, with eighty ſail of tranſports: during theſe operations, the young Prince of Orange had made a diverſion, or falſe attack, on two points of the frontier of Overyſſel, diſtant from each other, but equally important if he could have gained poſſeſſion of either. He ſummoned the little fortreſs of Coevorden, which borders on the country of Bantheim, and puſhed forwards on the ſide of Arnheim, at the confluence of the Yſſel and the Rhine, a body of his partiſans, who penetrated as far as Weſter Woort, on the left bank of the Yſſel, at a league from Arnheim. Still theſe attempts were fruitleſs; the proclamations iſſued by the command of the Stadtholder, did not excite the ſmalleſt movement. The national guards of Arnheim and Oldenard marched with cannon, attacked and diſſipated the little army of the Prince, who having received news of the taking of the Dutch fleet, embarked at Embden, with his officers, to go and join the army of the Duke of York.

The Dutch fleet ſailed in a few days after for England. The ſailors of both nations, it ſeems, were equally diſcontented; the Dutch, becauſe that they did not underſtand they had ſurrendered to the Engliſh, but only to the Stadtholder, and to return to Holland under the Orange flag; the Engliſh from a ſentiment of national pride, diſdaining ſuch ſort of conqueſts. Their reſpective Princes, ſince the Dutch ſailors had become Stadtholderian, wiſhed to ſee them in harmony: but

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the union of the two colours did not eradicate their mutual antipathy, nor ſubject them to proper rule and diſcipline; the Dutch had now time to ruminate on their treacherous and unavailing defection.

General Abercrombie, like an experienced officer, had taken an excellent poſition; and the happy experiment which he had made of the force of his entrenchments, behind the dykes of the Zyp, permitted him to extend himſelf by his left, or at leaſt to paſs ſtrong detachments to procure the reſources of which he was in the greateſt need. The Engliſh fleet of boats which had entered the Zuyder-Zee, took poſſeſſion of Medenblick; and this firſt maritime attack having given inquietude to Amſterdam, the preparations for the defence of the road were haſtened with all poſſible energy; veſſels were ſunk in the mouth of the channel called the Pampus. The batteries of Dimmadam and Durkerdam were mounted at the entrance of the port; an officer of the French marine was charged with the direction of the maritime manœuvres, and the French general, d'Hinniſdel, took the command of the place, and of all the department of Amſtel.

General Brune, who was aſſured of very conſiderable reinforcements from the Low Countries, and who was preſſing the Batavian government to augment their levies of national guards, confined his own operations to the keeping General Abercrombie within his cloſe poſition, where, however, he could not prevent him from waiting the arrival, and receiving the Ruſſians, and the ſecond diviſion of the Engliſh troops. The advanced poſts of the French and Batavians were within muſket-ſhot of the entrenchments, and were themſelves fortified by ſmall dykes; both poſitions became more reſpectable, and more conſequential every day. On the 15th of September, a very ſmart action took place between the advanced poſts towards the centre of the lines, towards Warmanhuyſen, of which the Engliſh had taken poſſeſſion, but were diſlodged by General Dumonceau, at the head

head of a detachment of grenadiers and infantry, at the moment the Duke of York reached the Texel, and landed his troops, which, joined to thoſe of the Zyp, completed the number of 22,000 men. Two days after, the firſt diviſion of Ruſſian troops, conſiſting of about 17,000 men, under the command of General Herman, arrived from Yarmouth. Scarcely had theſe forces made good their landing, when the Duke of York marched, and made them take poſſeſſion of the poſt of Petten on the right of the line.

When the allied army were all collected on this point, their number was about 35,000 men. The ſame motives which had influenced General Brune to attack General Abercrombie before the arrival of the Ruſſians, decided, without doubt, the Duke of York, as ſoon as he had aſſembled his forces, not to loſe an inſtant in attacking the French before they ſhould have received the reinforcements which were coming to them from the Low Countries and the Rhine. He made his diſpoſitions with precipitate diſpatch: the Ruſſian troops were divided between the right, where they formed the head of the column, ſupported by the Engliſh, and the centre with which they were intermixed. The column of the right, commanded by General Hermann (an old Captain of high military reputation), was oppoſed to the French column under the command of General Vandamme, the centre of the Dutch was commanded by General Dumonceau, their right was commanded by General Daendaels. The Duke of York was at the head of the columns forming the centre and left wing of his army; he had detached a corps of between 6 and 7,000 men, under the command of General Abercrombie, to take poſſeſſion of Hoorn, and march on the rear of the right of the Dutch, in order to ſurround them at the inſtant when the attack of the Ruſſians againſt the French diviſion ſhould have routed the left, under General Brune, and cut it off from the ſhore. The Duke of York's project, in this diſpoſition of attack by four columns, was to flank both wings of Brune's

Brune's army, and compel him to abandon his position before Alkmaar.

No reſiſtance was made to General Abercrombie at Hoorn, where he found only two companies of infantry. The next morning (September 19th) at day-break, the attack began with great fury along the whole line. General Hermann, at the head of a very conſiderable body of Ruſſian troops, followed by a diviſion of Engliſh, drove back the French advanced poſts which were at Kampf and Groot; he then puſhed forwards with the intention of ſurrounding the diviſion commanded by General Vandamme, who, having no longer any ſupport for his left, was forced to retreat. The Ruſſians took poſſeſſion of Schoreldam, and ſoon after of Bergen, an eſtate belonging to the Prince of Naſſau, with a conſiderable village, around which were very fine woods, into which the French troops withdrew, or rather concentered themſelves, after having given way to the impetuous attack of General Hermann, who was now only half a league diſtant from Alkmaar. The Ruſſians, therefore, had already paſſed the rear of the centre of Brune's line, whilſt the Duke of York, with a ſtrong diviſion of Engliſh troops, mingled with ſome Ruſſians, attacked him in front.

While the hoſtile armies were in theſe poſitions, General Brune thought it neceſſary to march the rear-guard of Dumonceau's diviſion towards Bergen, by a bridge of communication, which he had eſtabliſhed within a few days, on the canal which leads to the Zyp, ordering Daendaels's diviſion to draw cloſer to the centre, which had been weakened by this movement. The Ruſſian column, which had advanced too far, found itſelf attacked on a ſudden on both its flanks by General Vandamme's diviſion, and by a part of Dumanceau's, without power of communicating with the centre of the Engliſh. Having ſurrounded the village of Bergen by his left, on the ſide of the Downs, and by his right on the ſide of Alkmaar, Vandamme attacked with the bayonet; the village was retaken, which was ſo much

much the more obſtinate, as the Ruſſians were in hopes of being able to maintain their firſt advantage, till they were ſupported by the Engliſh; they fought like men driven to deſpair, and even when their ranks were broken, and the troops diſperſed, they defended themſelves in the church, and in the houſes, where great carnage enſued. The French general Gouovin diſtinguiſhed himſelf in this bloody conflict. The retreat of the principal part of General Hermann's column was entirely cut off and nearly all deſtroyed, with the complete loſs of their artillery. General Hermann himſelf was made priſoner, and General Elſon, his ſecond in command, was dangerouſly wounded. A great advantage on the ſide of the French, was the accurate knowlege of the ground, the ſcene of action, an advantage of no ſmall importance in a country ſo minutely interſected, and of which the Ruſſians who had landed the preceding day, were totally ignorant. The Ruſſians laboured alſo under another diſadvantage, which was not having taken repoſe neceſſary for undergoing ſo great a fatigue, after a cruize by ſea, which is more debilitating, in general, according to the opinion of military men, to troops, than long marches, or even engagements.

General Dumonceau, who was alſo wounded at the beginning of the action, maintained, or re-took his poſition; but his diviſion ſuffered much, becauſe it had to ſuſtain the efforts of the centre of the Engliſh army, and prevent it from affording ſuccours to its right. General Daendael's diviſion, which occupied the poſition of Oude-Carſpel, and formed, as has been obſerved, the right of the line of the Batavian army, was attacked by the Engliſh as warmly, as the left had been by the Ruſſians. After ſtanding firm till paſt mid-day, it was diſlodged with the loſs both of men and artillery. This diviſion, already weakened by the ſuccours which General Daendaels had ſent to that of the centre, and in which the exploſion of a powder-cartridge had encreaſed the diſorder, rallied, and began to join again

again in the engagement towards the close of the day. Daendaels attacked and carried the post of Broek, and the batteries which had been taken from him on the side of Oude-Carspel. The defeat of this right wing forced the Duke of York to draw back his left, which was too extended, and too enfeebled, after detaching general Abercrombie to Hoorn. This place the General evacuated during the night; and the whole of the allied army fell back to its entrenchments at the Zyp. Brune also took the same posts which he had occupied before the battle.

Highly important was the event of this battle to the Batavian government; it dissipated the alarm which the arrival of the Russians, the approach of the English on the side of Hoorn, and the manœuvres of their fleet of boats in the Zuyder-Zee, had spread through Amsterdam. The peaceful and opulent citizens of that capital justly dreaded the barbarous ferocity, marauding and desolating spirit with which the unenlightened and savage Russians carry on war. A few days after the defence of the Pampus was completed by the arrival of sixty or seventy French gun-boats with their crews, and which had been sent from Dunkirk by the interior canals of the Low Countries and Holland. The two armies contriving to entrench themselves in their opposite positions, became every day more formidable to each other, by the mutual obstacles which they multiplied in every direction, and by the reinforcements which they received. The rearguard of the Russians, consisting of 2,000 men and upwards, landed at the Texel; and on the other side, a French demi-brigade passed through Amsterdam to Alkmaar, while every exertion was making to press the raising new levies, and form battalions of national guards.

Matters remained quiet between the two hostile armies during a week or ten days from the battle of Bergen. The army of the Duke of York, in resuming its post of the Zyp, had re-established and strengthened its right, flanked by the sea with the towns of Enchuysen

and Medjnblick on its left. From theſe poſts, the fleet of gun-boats continued to attack and haraſs different points of the Zuyder-Zee; and maſters of the Lemmer, the Engliſh made a deſcent in Frieſland, ſummoned Harderwick, and attacked Slaveren, without reaping, however, from thoſe attacks the fruits they expected, on account of the ſituation of the interior; nor did they produce any reſources, which were diminiſhing and becoming leſs abundent every day. They then were in ſome degree undeceived reſpecting the real temper and friendly diſpoſitions of the Batavians towards the cauſe of the allied army.

Meanwhile the left Ruſſian diviſion arrived, and the combined army prepared to renew its attacks. It appeared, even by the ſpeeches in parliament, that the miniſtry were decided to purſue their plan without ſuffering themſelves to be ſhaken by the difficulties which the nature of the country preſented, the unexpected vigorous efforts of the Batavian government, and the aid of France, much more extenſive than had been deemed poſſible at this epocha of the campaign. Nay, a member high in office, and who ought to have been the beſt informed man in the kingdom, on account of the reſponſibility of his ſituation, boldy ſaid in parliament, that with an army of 70,000 men, beſides the powerful aid to be expected from the partizans of the houſe of Orange, want of ſucceſs was next to impoſſible.—And yet the reply to a haughty and powerful Prince, had certainly ſome common ſenſe in it,—*Let not him that girdeth on the harneſs boaſt as he that putteth it off.*

The French commander, although ſucceſsful, was ſtill inferior in real ſtrength; and therefore was anxiouſly waiting for the arrival of a diviſion which Kellerman had organized in the Low Countries, and of which he was haſtening the march towards North Holland. Nor were the Batavians on their part, remiſs in their preparations both in completing and augmenting their battalions. From the concurrence of both republics,

publics, the defenſive poſition of the French and Batavian army became every day ſtronger. General Brune had ſtrengthened the different entrenchments which covered his left, chiefly before the village of Bergen; the woods which ſurround it, the Downs which cover and command it, on the ſide of the north, in the direction of the avenue of Schoreldam, rendered this part of the poſition very reſpectable, and the ſame ground from the Downs to the ſea, was not leſs favourable for the defenſive; the centre and the right were almoſt impregnable, the ſwelling of the waters had allowed him to extend the great inundation of the Huygen-Waard, and, if it were not entirely complete, at leaſt almoſt all the country had been rendered marſhy and impracticable, and all the roads and paſſages between Alkmaar and Mendenblick, were cut in every direction.

To this ſiniſter circumſtance, the Polder of the Beemſter was almoſt entirely inundated, and covered Edam and Purmerend; the front of the defenſive was reduced to two leagues and a half, or three leagues at moſt. This obſervation is ſo much the more important, as the Engliſh and Ruſſian army paſſed all at once from an attack too diverging to the contrary exceſs; ſince, if it ſucceeded in paſſing the poſition of Alkmaar, inſtead of being able to extend itſelf, in order to take advantage of its ſuperiority, it was obliged to double its lines, and to narrow the interval of its columns; the diſadvantage of this kind of attack is obvious, and ſo much the more in the caſe of a retreat, as the ground preſents itſelf in an inverſe mode, and obſtructs the rallying, inſtead of favouring it. It was on the 2d of October that the Duke of York made a general attack with the whole of his forces: as he could not manœuvre by his left, on account of the inundations, nor hazard an engagement in difficult paſſes, to turn the Waard, he directed once more his principal effort againſt the French diviſions which formed the left of General Brune. The advanced parts of this left and

and of the centre of the French and Batavian army were at firſt attacked and diſlodged from Groet, Kampf, Schorel, and Schoreldam, by the Engliſh and Ruſſian troops. The diſpoſition of the Duke of York's attack was in four columns; that of the right, formed by three brigades of infantry, nine ſquadrons of dragoons, and a detachment of artillery on horſeback, was led on by General Abercrombie; this column run along the ſea ſhore. Two columns of nearly the ſame force, compoſed, one of Ruſſian troops, and another of Engliſh, marched towards Bergen, and, after having followed the road at the foot of the Downs of Camperdown, extended themſelves by the right on the heights. A fourth column, in which was the young Prince of Orange, kept in check Daendaels's diviſion. After the poſts of Schoreldam had been carried, the engagement took a more ſerious turn before Bergen; General Gouvion, who commanded in this village, ſupported the attack of General Dundas, and was firm in maintaining it, till Abercrombie, who had already paſſed Bergen, and endeavoured to turn by Egmont the poſition of Alkmaar, ſupported by the fire of the gun-boats, which were ſtationed along the ſhore, had ordered his column to file acroſs the Downs, and, taking advantage both of the inequalities of the ground to place his light artillery, and cover his attacks, had driven back, as far as Egmont, every thing that reſiſted him. This laſt poſt, commanded by General Vandamme, was not leſs vigorouſly defended than that of Bergen, but both were evacuated by the French during the night, after the moſt bloody engagements which had yet taken place in Holland. Several Generals were wounded, and, both in the attack and in the defence, each party charged ſeveral times with that fatal weapon—the bayonet.

With equal ſucceſs the centre of the French and Batavian army at Lang-dyke, was attacked; a few armed boats, placed along the canal of Alkmaar, had greatly contributed, in this part, to the taking of Schoreldam, and to the progreſs of the columns. The cou-

rage

rage and addreſs of the Scotch Highlanders were particularly noticed; they fought in the inundations, and forced, with agility, every obſtacle, to gain the flank of the troops which were oppoſed to them.

General Brune perceiving his left preſſed by Abercrombie's column, and his centre broke in upon, fell back in good order, and took a new poſition, both better and more ſtrong than the former, while it was alſo better connected. General Daendaels's diviſion, though it had not been attacked, was obliged to follow the movements of the centre and left, and abandon the poſition of Brook, St. Pancras, and Oude-Carſpel, and retreat towards Purmerend and Monikendam, behind the inundations of the Schermer and the Beemſter. The advanced poſts were at Limmen, Baccum, Akerſloot, and the head-quarters at Beverwich, which is only three leagues from Haerlem.

The Engliſh troops entered Alkmaar next day, and ſent forward their poſts, parallel to thoſe of the French and Dutch army; and Brune, after ſending back to Haerlem part of his baggage, took means to ſecure himſelf in the poſition he had taken.

While the Engliſh were threatening the ſeat of empire in Holland, Surinam, the laſt of its valuable colonies in South America, fell into their hands (Auguſt 19th), like the Dutch fleet, without ſtriking a ſingle blow. It appears, however, that the colony was in no ſituation to make any long or effectual reſiſtance; and the repreſentations which had been continually made by the governor to the Batavian government, of his weak and defenceleſs ſtate, had remained without reply; or poſſibly, in this as in other caſes, the Dutch had relied upon, and paid the French government for aſſiſtance, which the latter had as conſtantly promiſed, and neglected.

The French government, however, from this reſiſtance on the part of the Dutch in Europe, which had not been counted on by either ſide, and which the ſlowneſs of the junction of the three diviſions of the expedition

pedition had ſo ſtrongly favoured, obtained by it full time to feel all the importance of the defence of Holland. The ſuccours ſent there were in reality employed to guarantee the frontiers of the Low Countries, into which the Engliſh, after having conquered Holland, would have eaſily turned againſt the French republic the ſame arms, the ſame means, as at this moment the republic directed againſt them. Nevertheleſs, this new war in Holland had conſiderably encreaſed the embarraſſment of the French directory, by hindering it from forming its army on the Rhine, or at leaſt carrying it to ſuch a proportion of force, ſo as to make it act on the offenſive, maintain itſelf on the right ſide, and, above all, to ſubſiſt at the expence of the empire. General Muller, after having been reinforced by detachments drawn from the garriſons, had not been able to collect more than 20,000 men, with which he could only make a diverſion, unable to maintain himſelf before the Archduke, who was on the march againſt him with ſuperior forces. The retreat of this Prince from Switzerland, with the ſtrongeſt part of the Auſtrian army, had not produced the effect which he expected, and Maſſena had not been able to puſh, as far as he had thought it poſſible, the firſt advantage of the ſucceſſes of the Generals Chabran and Lecourbe againſt the centre and the left of the allied army, although circumſtances then appeared greatly in his favour; but the demonſtrations of the Archduke, who threatened to force a paſſage, to turn the left of the French army, between Brifach and Baſil, kept Maſſena in ſuſpenſe: beſides, if the extent of his poſition be conſidered, after he had occupied the canton of Glaris, and encircled the Lakes of Zurich and Walienſtadt, it will be found that he could not undertake an attack with ſufficient forces on the excellent frontiers of General Hotze, on the line of the Lakes,—that is to ſay, the left flank, and the rear of the Auſtro-Ruſſian army; nor diſlodge it from its poſition before Zurich, without riſking being cut off himſelf from his right.

The

The Archduke, whoſe head-quarters were ſtill at St. Blaiſe, appeared to threaten Baſil and Hüningen, while he made his army file off by Donauſhingen, towards Lewiſburg. The main body of the Auſtrian army, which was encamped between Echterdingen and Waldenſbruch, continued its forced marches in the ſame direction; General Nauendorf's advanced guard, and General Stzarry's diviſion, had already detached their light troops upon the advanced poſts of the French, who had evacuated Bruchſal, and raiſed the ſiege of Philipſburg. They had attempted, two days before, to ſcale the entrenchments on the ſide of Rheinſheim and Wieſenthal, but the Rhingrave of Salm had repulſed them with loſs, and the town, which he had ſo bravely defended, was entirely relieved. This ſecond bombardment of Philipſburg laſted five days and five nights, and, in this ſhort ſpace of time, the town, a few houſes excepted, was reduced to aſhes. It was accounted the hotteſt bombardment which had taken place during the war of the revolution.

Muller's firſt retreat was by Waghauſel; he evacuated Heidelberg (September 15th), and ſending his artillery and baggage beyond the Rhine, encamped before Manheim, near Neckareau. This retreat of the French continued in good order by the bridge of Manheim, and the corps of the army of the Rhine divided on reaching the left ſide; 6,000 men filed off to Mentz, and another diviſion to Spires and Germerſheim. A rearguard of about 6,000 men, under the command of General Laroche, remained in the entrenchments of Manheim, and in the works of the place, which had been re-eſtabliſhed, or but imperfectly raiſed. The Archduke had uſed ſo much diligence, that, having been able to collect a corps of 25,000 men in the plains of the Neckar, he marched in perſon to the village of Seckinheim, and began the attack with the diviſions under the command of Generals Stzarry and Koſpeth. Theſe were at firſt repulſed; but having made a ſecond attack,

attack, with the battalions of the grenadiers, the redoubt on the right ſide of the Neckar, as well as the remaining entrenchments, were carried. As from the commencement of the attack, the Imperial artillery had taken advantageous poſitions on the banks of the river, which commanding the bridge of boats, the retreat of the French was cut off, the gates of the town forced, and more than half of General Laroche's diviſion was taken priſoners, after loſing almoſt the whole of the reſt. The Archduke, after this victory, marched towards Schwetzingen, one of the points the moſt frequently and alternately occupied by both parties during this war. He had now poſſeſſion of both ſides of the Mein, below Frankfort. The head-quarters of the land-ſtrum, or levy of the militia of the electorate of Mentz, was tranſferred from Niederrard to Hochſt; expedition was uſed in haſtening the arrival of pontoons, and great preparations were made, with the apparent deſign to croſs the Rhine with the Auſtrian army and that of the empire, which the Archduke was employed in collecting and organizing, and whoſe total force amounted to about 60,000 men.

Theſe formidable preparations were not unknown to the French, and that government were equally alert in making the detachments, which they had puſhed as far as Weilburg, and directed their courſe towards Ehrenbreitſtein. Uncertain as to the point on which the Archduke was going to force his paſſage, and as yet unable to penetrate his deſigns, General Muller limited his operations to the covering Mentz, fixed his head-quarters at Dukheim, and ceaſing all ſort of communication with the right ſide of the Rhine.

Before we proceed in our account of the hoſtile operations of the reſpective armies by land, we ſhall relieve the minds of our readers by turning their attention to ſome of the gallant exploits of our naval commanders, and which well deſerve a place in the page of Britiſh hiſtory.

Copy

Copy of a letter from Captain Markham to Vice-admiral Lord Keith.

Centaur, June 19th, 1799.

My Lord,

I have the honour to inform you, that purſuant to your ſignal of yeſterday, for a general chace to the N. E. I came up with, and captured three frigates on the evening of this day. The Bellona, and Santa Tereſa frigate being neareſt when the two ſternmoſt ſtruck, I made their ſignals to take poſſeſſion of them, while I purſued the third, which ſtruck alſo in an hour afterwards. The Emerald, in the mean time, took the Salamine brig, and the Captain the Alerte. This ſquadron was commanded by Rear-admiral Perre, thirty-three days from Jaffa, bound to Toulon.

J. MARKHAM.

Their names are as follow:—

La Junon, Rear-admiral Perre, Porquerer, Captain, 40 guns, eighteen-pounders, 500 men. Le Courageux, Buille, Captain, 22 guns, twelve-pounders, 300 men. La Salamine brig, Sandry, Lieutenant, 18 guns, ſix-pounders, 120 men. L'Aceſte, Barre, Captain, 36 guns, twelve-pounders, 300 men. L'Alerte brig, Dumay, Lieutenant, 14 guns, ſix-pounders, 120 men.

H. M. S. Hound, June 28th.

My Lord,

Since my laſt letter to you, I fell in with a large lugger of 16 guns, and after a chace of fourteen hours, having ſhot away her mainmaſt, I drove her on ſhore on the coaſt of Jutland—blowing very hard, with a heavy ſea on the beach, ſhe was ſoon daſhed to pieces, and I fear many of the lives of the crew were loſt. It gives me pleaſure in having deſtroyed her, as ſhe was one of the largeſt and faſteſt ſailing veſſels on the coaſt,

and was following the rear of the Baltic convoy when I fell in with her.

JOHN WOOD.

Lord Viſcount Duncan.

The gazette alſo contains an account of the following captures.

Ten veſſels laden with wheat, ſheep, and other articles of proviſions, off Minorca, by the Ethalion

La Caroline French privateer, of 16 guns, and 90 men, by the Emerald, off Sardinia.

The St. Anthonio Spaniſh armed brig, of 14 braſs guns, and 70 men, with ſome others of leſſer ſizes.

Extract of a letter from Captain Cunningham, of his Majeſty's ſhip the Clyde, dated Auguſt 28th, 1799, addreſſed to Lord Keith.

My Lord,

I have the honour to inform you, that on the 20th inſtant, at half paſt eight in the morning, I diſcovered two ſail in the S. W. to which I gave chace, and ſoon perceived that they were ſtanding towards us, when they continued ſo to do, until his Majeſty's ſhip under my command was within two miles of them, when they bore up and made ſail, going large on different tacks. I continued to chace the largeſt, and ſoon brought her to action, which was maintained with great gallantry on the part of the enemy until his ſhip was wholly diſmantled, and had received ſeveral ſhot between wind and water; when La Veſtale, a French frigate of 36 guns, twelve-pounders, and 235 men, ſtruck to his Majeſty's ſhip Clyde. Her conſort, the Sageſſe, of 30 guns, availing herſelf of the vicinity of the Garonne, eſcaped from us. The prize had ten ſeamen and marines killed, and many wounded.

Admiralty Office, September 3d, 1799.

Lieutenant Collier, of his Majeſty's ſhip Iſis, arrived this day with diſpatches from Vice-admiral Mitchell to Evan

Evan Nepean Esq. secretary to the Admiralty, of which the following are copies:

Isis, at anchor at the Red Buoy, near Vlieter, August 30th, 1799.

Sir,

I have the very great satisfaction to acquaint you, for the information of my Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, that the whole of the Dutch fleet near the Vlieter surrendered to the squadron under my command without firing a gun, agreeable to a summons I sent this morning. The Dutch squadron was to be held to the orders of his serene highness the Prince of Orange, and the orders I may receive from their Lordships of the Admiralty for my further proceedings.

I have the honour to be, &c.

A. MITCHELL.

Isis, at anchor, August 31st, 1799.

It blowing strong from the south-west, and also the flood tide, I could not send away my short letter last night, I therefore have to request you will lay before their Lordships, that on the morning of yesterday, I got the squadron under weigh at five o'clock, and immediately formed the line of battle, and began to prepare for action.—About half past ten, I sent Captain Rennie, of the Victor, with a summons to the Dutch admiral, as it was Lord Duncan's wish that I should do so, and in her way she picked up a flag of truce with two Dutch captains from the Dutch admiral to me. Captain Rennie very properly brought them on board; and, from a conversation of a few minutes, I was induced to anchor in a line, a short distance from the Dutch squadron, at their earnest request. They returned with my positive orders not to alter the position of the ships, nor do any thing whatsoever to them, and in one hour to submit, or take the consequences.

In less than the time prescribed, they returned with a verbal answer, that they submitted accordingly to the summons,

ſummons, and ſhould conſider themſelves (the officers) on parole, until I heard from the Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty, and the Prince of Orange, for my further proceedings.

I have now the honour to encloſe you herewith the line of battle in which the ſquadron advanced, a copy of my ſummons to the Dutch admiral, and alſo a liſt of the Dutch fleet.

Admiral Storey's flag is down, and I have ſent an officer on board of his ſhips, to have an eye over, and charge of them, as they themſelves requeſted that it ſhould be ſo. I have alſo furniſhed them with the Prince of Orange's ſtandard, many of them not having had it before, and they are now all under theſe colours. To maintain quiet among their crews, I iſſued a ſhort manifeſto, of which I alſo incloſe a copy herewith.

The animated exertions and conduct of my whole ſquadron, are far above any praiſe I can beſtow on them; but I ſhall ever feel moſt ſenſibly impreſſed on my heart, their ſpirited conduct during the whole of this buſineſs. We have all felt the ſame zeal for the honour of our ſovereign and our country; and although the concluſion has not turned out as we expected, yet the merit, I may ſay, in ſome meaſure, is not the leſs due to my ſquadron; and, if I had brought them to action, I truſt it would have added another laurel to the navy of England, in this preſent war. The Dutch were aſtoniſhed and thunderſtruck at the approach of our ſquadron, never believing it poſſible that we could ſo ſoon have laid down the buoys, and led them to them in a line of battle, in a channel where they themſelves go through with but one or two ſhips at a time, &c.

A. MITCHELL.

Line of battle at noon, Auguſt 30th, 1799.

Ships' names and commanders.	*Guns.*	*Men.*
Glatton, Captain Charles Cobb	54	354
Romney, Captain Lawford	54	343
Iſis, Vice-admiral Mitchell	50	343
Veteran, Captain Dickſon	64	491

Arden,

Ships' names and commanders.	*Guns.*	*Men.*
Ardent, Captain Bertie	64	491
Belliqueux, Captain Bulteel	64	491
Monmouth, Captain Hart	64	491
Overyſſel, Captain Bazely	64	491
Miſtiſloff, Captain Moller	64	491

Melpomene, Latona, Shannon, Juno, and Lutine, frigates.

Iſis, under ſail, in line of battle.

Sir,

I deſire you will inſtantly hoiſt the flag of his ſerene highneſs the Prince of Orange. If you do, you will be immediately conſidered as friends of the King of Great Britain, my moſt gracious ſovereign, otherwiſe take the conſequences. Painful it will be to me for the loſs of blood it may occaſion, but the guilt will be on your own head.

I have the honour to be, &c.

A. MITCHELL.

To Rear-admiral Storey.

A liſt of the Dutch ſquadron taken poſſeſſion of in the Texel, by Vice-admiral Mitchell, Auguſt 30th, 1799.

Ships' names and commanders.	*Guns.*
Waſhington, Rear-admiral Storey, Capt. Capelle	74
Guelderland, Captain Waldeck	68
Admiral de Ruyter, Captain Huiſs	68
Utrecht, Captain Kolf	68
Cerberus, Captain de Jong	68
Leyden, Captain Van Braam	68
Bechermer, Captain Eilbracht	54
Batavier, Captain Van Senden	54
Amphitrite, Captain Schutter	44
Mars, Captain de Boek	44
Ambuſcade, Captain Riverij	32
Galathea, Captain Droop	16

A. MITCHELL.

Iſis, Auguſt 30th, 1799.

The underſigned, Vice-admiral in the ſervice of his Majeſty the King of Great Britain, charged with the execution

execution of the naval part of the expedition to reſtore the Stadtholder, and the old and lawful conſtitution of the Seven United Provinces, guaranteed by his Majeſty, having agreed that, in conſequence of the ſummons to rear-admiral Storey, the ſhips, after hoiſting the ancient colours, will be conſidered as in the ſervice of the allies of the Britiſh crown, and under the orders of his ſerene highneſs the hereditary Stadtholder, Captain and Admiral general of the Seven United Provinces, has thought it proper to give an account of this agreement to the brave crews of the different ſhips, and to ſummon them by the ſame to behave in a peaceable and orderly manner, ſo that no complaints may be repreſented by the officer, the underſigned will ſend on board of each of the ſhips to keep proper order until the intentions of his Majeſty, and his ſerene highneſs the Prince of Orange, as Rear-admiral, ſhall be known, for the further deſtination of theſe ſhips, on account of which diſpatches will be immediately ſent off. And to make them aware, that in caſe their conduct ſhould not be ſo as may be expected from the known loyalty and attachment of the Dutch navy to the illuſtrious houſe of Orange on this occaſion, any exceſs or irregularity will be puniſhed with the ſeverity which the diſorders which may have been committed merit.

(Signed) ANDREW MITCHELL.

On board the Waſhington, anchored under the Vlieter, Auguſt 30th, 1799.

Admiral,

Neither your ſuperiority, nor threat that the ſpilling of human blood ſhould be laid to my account, could prevent my ſhowing you to the laſt moment what I could do for my ſovereign, whom I acknowledge to be no other than the Batavian people and its repreſentatives, when your Princes and the Orange flag have obtained their end. The traitors whom I commanded, refuſed to fight; and nothing remains to me and my brave officers but vain rage, and the dreadful reflection

of

of our preſent ſituation: I therefore deliver over to you the fleet which I commanded. From this moment it is your obligation to provide for the ſafety of my officers, and the few brave men who are on board the Batavian ſhips, as I declare myſelf and my officers priſoners of war, and remain to be conſidered as ſuch.

I am with reſpect,

S. STOREY.

To Admiral Mitchell commanding his Britannic Majeſty's ſquadron in the Texel.

Iſis, at anchor at the Red Buoy, near the Vlieter, Auguſt 31ſt.

Sir

Since my letter of the 29th, by Captain Oughton, I received a letter from Captain Winthrop, of the Circe, containing a more particular account of the men of war, &c. taken poſſeſſion of in the Nieuve Diep, than I had then in my power to ſend, of which you will receive a copy herewith for the information of my Lords commiſſioners of the admiralty.

I have the honour, &c.

A MITCHELL.

Evan Nepean, Eſq.

Helder, Auguſt 28th.

Sir,

I have the honour to inform you, that I, this morning, took poſſeſſion of the Nieuve Diep, with the ſhips and veſſels under mentioned, and alſo of the naval arſenal containing ninety-five pieces of ordnance. A copy of the naval ſtores I will tranſmit you as ſoon as it can be made out.

I have the honour to be, &c.

R WINTHROP.

Ships' names.	*Guns.*
Urwachten	66
Broederſchop	54
Hector	44
Diuſſe	44

Expedition

Ships' names.	*Guns.*
Expedition	44
Conſtitutie	44
Belle Antoinette	44
Unie	44
Helder	32
Follock	24
Minerva	24
Venus	24
Alarm	24

Indiamen.

Dreiglerlahan, Howada, Vreedeluſt; and a ſheer hulk.

Andrew Mitchell, Eſq.

A diſpatch, of which the following is an extract, has been received from Lieutenant-general Sir Raph Abercrombie.

Head-quarters, Scagenbrug, September 4th.

From Auguſt 27th to September 1ſt, the troops continued to occupy the Sand-hills on which they fought. On that day, the army marched, and took poſt with its right, to Petten, on the German ocean, and its left to Oude Sluys on the Zuyder-Zee with the canal of the Zuype in front. A better country is now open to us. We have found ſome horſes and waggons, and a plentiful ſupply of freſh proviſions. The troops continue healthy, and behave extremely well—I have the honour to incloſe herewith a return of the artillery, ammunition, and engineers ſtores, captured at the Helder.

Helder, Auguſt 31ſt.

Return of ordnance, ammunition, and ſtores, taken Auguſt 28th, at the different batteries and magazines at or near this place, viz.

Braſs ordnance, mounted.

Twenty-four twenty-four-pounders, five nine-pounders, one three-pounder; thirteen eight-inch and four five-inch howitzers; five ten-inch mortars.

Iron

Iron ordnance mounted, eighteen twenty-pounders —ditto, dismounted, forty-one twenty-four pounders; fifty-six nine-pounders.

Case-shot, 345 twenty-four pounders, sixty-four nine-pounders; seventy-seven eight-inch, and sixty-one five-inch howitzers, &c. with a large quantity of small shot, powder, &c.

J. Whitworth.

A gazette, dated September 4th, contains an account of the ships taken by his Majesty's ship Flora—in all twenty-seven vessels, many of them richly loaded, but poorly armed.

Admiralty-Office, September 28th, 1799.

Copy of a letter from Andrew Mitchell, Esq. Vice-admiral of the blue, to Evan Nepean Esq. dated on board the Isis, June 20th.

Sir,

I beg leave to transmit the extract of a letter from captain Portlock, giving an account of the capture of a ship and brig of superior force. The gallantry and good conduct displayed on the occasion by Captains Portlock and Bolton, their officers and ships companies, merit my highest praise and thanks.

I have the honour to state to you, that, in obedience to your order of the 9th instant, I immediately got under weigh, accompanied by the Wolverene, and proceeded on the service you did me the particular honour to entrust to my care. On the evening of that day, the tide of flood being done, we anchored a-breast off the Texel, and, on the afternoon of the following day, we anchored on the edge of the Flack or Flat, a-breast off Wieringen. At this anchorage I found it necessary to lighten the ship, and so we turned over the Flack the following day. On the morning of the 12th we weighed again, and proceeded on for the Fly Island,

tity of treaſure, for the Texel; but a ſtrong lee-tide rendered every effort of Captain Skynner, to avoid the threatened danger, unavailable; and, it was alike impoſſible, during the night, to receive any aſſiſtance, either from the Arrow, Captain Portlock, which was in company, or the ſhore, from whence ſeveral ſchuyts were in readineſs to give her. When the dawn broke, La Lutine was in vain looked for; ſhe had gone to pieces, and all on board unfortunately periſhed, except two men who were picked up, and one of whom has ſince died from the fatigue he had encountered. The ſingle ſurvivor is Mr. Schabrack, a notary public. In the annals of our naval hiſtory, there has ſcarcely ever happened a loſs attended with ſo much calamity, both of a public, as well as private nature. The return from the bullion-office makes the whole amount to 600,000 dollars, about 140,000l. ſterling in ſpecie, on board the Lutine, which had been ſhipped by individual merchants in this country, for the relief of different commercial houſes in Hamburg. There were alſo ſeveral merchants on board, who all ſuffered.

Here follows information of a more agreeable nature.

Admiralty-Office, October 23d, 1799.

Lord Bridport to Mr. Nepean, dated Torbay, October 21ſt.

Sir,

It is with ſincere ſatisfaction I acquaint you, that Lieutenant Jauncey, of his Majeſty's ſhip Ethalion, is juſt arrived here from Plymouth, by whom I have received a letter from Captain Young, ſtating his having captured, on the 16th inſtant, the Thetis Spaniſh frigate, with much treaſure, and a valuable cargo of cocoa on board; alſo informing me that another Spaniſh frigate, her conſort, has no doubt been taken by the Naiad. Incloſed is a copy of Captain Young's letter.

BRIDPORT.

Ethalion

Ethalion, Plymouth-ſound, October 21ſt.

My Lord,

I have the pleaſure to inform your Lordſhip, that, on the 16th inſtant, at three P. M. in latitude 44 degrees, we diſcovered three large ſail on the weather bow, evidently men of war, ſteering S. E. with all ſails ſet. I immediately tacked, and ſtood under an eaſy ſail, with an intention to hail the ſternmoſt, or to follow them till day-light, with a view to aſcertain their force. On a nearer approach to the above ſhip, ſhe made the private ſignal; concluding from that, the other two ſhips were enemies, I made all poſſible ſail in chace. At day-light, I found her to be his Majeſty's ſhip the Naiad, and another frigate in company, which I took to be the Alcmene, and two large frigates a-head. At ſeven, the Naiad made my ſignal to paſs the ſternmoſt, and ſtand on for the headmoſt. At nine A. M. being within random ſhot of the ſternmoſt, I fired a few guns in paſſing, which made her alter her courſe. At half paſt eleven, the headmoſt ſhip bore up athwart us, at the diſtance of half muſket-ſhot: by the abilities and the meritorious conduct of the officers, the ſteady ſpirit and prompt obedience to my orders, of the ſeamen and marines, with a well-directed fire of two broadſides from the Ethalion, and a running fight of an hour, exchanging bow and ſtern chaces, the latter part within half piſtol-ſhot, I had the pleaſure of ſeeing her haul down the Spaniſh colours to his Majeſty's ſhip under my command. She proves to be the Thetis Spaniſh frigate, of 36 guns, twelve and ſix-pounders, and 250 men, commanded by Don Juan de Mendoza, from Vera Cruz, bound to any port in Spain ſhe could fetch, with 1,400,526 dollars, and a large quantity of cocoa on board. I have the additional ſatisfaction to acquaint your Lordſhip, that not a ſingle man on board the Ethalion is hurt. The other Spaniſh frigate is called the Brigada, commanded by Don Antonio Pillou, the ſame force and lading as the Thetis. The laſt time I

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ſaw the Naiad, which was juſt before the action took place, ſhe was nearly within gun-ſhot of her. I have no doubt of her being captured by this time. I beg leave to recommend to your Lordſhip's notice Lieutenant Pym, the ſenior officer, for the able aſſiſtance I received from him on the quarter-deck; and his indefatigable exertions, in ſhifting the wounded maſts and yards, on board the Thetis, which does him the utmoſt credit. I cannot paſs over in ſilence the praiſe due to Lieutenants Jauncey and Quilliam, for their great attention to the guns on the main-deck, nor that of Mr. Ducker, the maſter, and Lieutenant Peake, of the marines, for their aid on the quarter-deck; the warrant and petty officers, ſeamen and marines, all merit your Lordſhip's notice.

J. YOUNG.

Ethalion, none killed or wounded.
Thetis, one killed and nine wounded.

October 24th, 1799.

Copy of another letter from Lord Bridport to Mr. Nepean, October 22d.

Sir,

Captain Digby, of his Majeſty's ſhip Alcmene, is juſt arrived here: he came from Plymouth by land, charged with diſpatches from Captain Pierrpoint, of his Majeſty's ſhip Naiad, ſtating, among other occurrences, the important capture of the Santa Brigada Spaniſh frigate, conſort of the Thetis (as ſtated in Captain Young's letter of yeſterday's date), copies of which you will herewith receive for their Lordſhips' information, whom I ſincerely congratulate upon this fortunate occaſion, which does ſo much credit to Captain Pierrpoint, and all the officers, ſeamen, and marines, of the different ſhips under his command, for the meritorious and perſevering conduct manifeſted upon this occaſion.

I am, &c.

BRIDPORT.

Naiad,

Naiad, off Cape Finiſterre, October 19th.

My Lord,

I have great pleaſure in being able to acquaint you, that his Majeſty's ſhips Naiad, Triton, and Alcmene, (which your Lordſhip has done me the honour to put under my orders) captured, yeſterday morning, the Spaniſh frigate Santa Brigada, of 32 guns, and having on board 300 men, commanded by Don Antonio Pillou.

This frigate, my Lord, in company with another, called the Thetis, left Vera Gruz on the 21ſt of Auguſt laſt; I had the good fortune to fall in with them both on the evening of the 16th inſtant at eight P. M. The Naiad was then a ſingle ſhip, and with her I immediately gave chace. Before midnight, I diſcovered them to be veſſels belonging to the enemy, and was joined by the Ethalion: when the day broke, I was joined by the Alcmene, and the Triton was diſcovered far a-ſtern: ſtill owing to the ſuperior ſailing of the latter ſhip, after a chace which laſted thirty-two hours, I ſet myſelf down as indebted for a moſt valuable capture. The two frigates, at ſeven A. M. perceiving themſelves not in a ſtate to withſtand our united force, took different routes, upon which I made the Ethalion's ſignals to paſs the ſternmoſt ſhip of the enemy, as ſhe at that time took the lead in point of ſailing, and ſtand for, and engage the headmoſt veſſel, which was obeyed with ſuch alacrity by Captain Young, that I make no doubt ſhe has experienced a ſimilar fate to her companion; but as the Santa Brigada made a determined puſh on a ſouthern courſe, a ſeparation of conſequence took place. The latter frigate of the enemy, having rounded Cape Finiſterre, on the morning of the 18th inſtant, by her faſt ſailing, about five o'clock her commander ſhoved ſo very cloſe to the rocks of Monte Lora, that the Triton, who was firſt in purſuit, (Captain Gore being regardleſs of every thing but cloſing with the enemy,) ſtruck upon the ſaid rocks, going ſeven knots at the time. I fear her damage is conſiderable;

able; however, ſhe was ſoon off again, and commenced an animated fire upon the enemy; as did Captain Digby, with an officer-like preſence of mind, keeping in that direction to cut off the entrance of Porte de Vidre. At eight A. M. the three frigates cloſed with the enemy amidſt the rocks of Commarurto, at the entrance of Muros, when the colours were hauled down, and we found ourſelves all in foul ground together. A fortunate breeze ſprang up from the ſhore, and we were enabled to put the ſhips' heads to the ſea, and began to ſhift the priſoners, when a Spaniſh ſquadron, conſiſting of four large ſhips, one with a broad pendant, came out of Vigo, with the manifeſt intention of reſcuing the prize. This being the joint opinion of Captains Gore and Digby, every exertion was made to ſecure the priſoners, and get the ſhips under my command ready to receive them; but, on their perceiving my determination, they bore up and ran into Vico.

Light and variable winds have kept me ſtill in ſight of the Spaniſh coaſt, which is to-day one continued blaze of ſignals; and, as I was aware of another ſquadron of Spaniſh ſhips being in Corunna, have thought it my duty to keep altogether, for the protection of the prize, which is of immenſe value; having on board 1,400,000 dollars, independent of a cargo of equal value.

My companions in chace, Captains Gore and Digby, make the moſt favourable report of the zeal and perſeverance of their reſpective officers and crews; and in juſtice to the officers and ſhip's company I have the honour to command, I can only ſay, that their anxiety to get along-ſide the enemy's frigates, whilſt alone, was equal to what it was afterwards when my force became ſuperior; and above all, they diſplayed true Britiſh courage when we perceived a ſtrong Spaniſh ſquadron threatening to attack us, and reſcue the rich prize in our poſſeſſion, which boldneſs made the timid Dons to ſheer off. I greatly profited by the able aſſiſtance of J. H. Marſhall, my firſt Lieutenant, to whom I have given

given the charge of the prize. I herewith incloſe a liſt of the killed and wounded on this occaſion, either by ſhot or caſualties.

I am, &c.

W. PIERREPOINT.

Triton, one ſeaman wounded.

Alcmene, one ſeaman killed, one petty officer, and eight ſeamen, wounded.

Santa Brigada, two ſeamen killed, eight ſeamen wounded.

Rear-admiral Duckworth to Mr. Nepean, dated Leviathan, off Liſbon, October 13th, 1799.

Sir,

You will be pleaſed to lay before my Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty, the copy of a letter from Captain Brenton, of the Speedy, relating to the deſtruction of three Spaniſh veſſels he chaced on the 3d inſtant. It is but juſtice to this officer to obſerve, that his exertions and gallantry, at all opportunities, do him the higheſt honour.

I am, &c.

J. J. DUCKWORTH.

Speedy, at ſea, October 4th.

Sir,

I have the honour to inform you, that yeſterday, while running through the gut of Gibraltar, in ſight of the Britiſh convoy, I obſerved a number of ſmall veſſels coming out of Algeſiras, and concluded they were Spaniſh gun-boats, endeavouring to cut off ſome of the merchant-ſhips; I therefore ſteered for them, in order to keep them as far as poſſible from the body of the fleet; but, upon our nearer approach, perceiving they were eight Spaniſh coaſters, under the protection of a cutter and a ſchooner, made all ſail in chace, and ſoon ſeparated the two ſternmoſt from the body: they ran under the guns of a caſtle, which opened a fire upon us and prevented our bringing them off. But we con-

tinued the purſuit of the others, paſſing under the ſhot from Tariff Caſtle, and about four in the afternoon, came up with four more in a bay to the eaſt of Cape Trafalguar; one immediately anchored near a fort, and the other three under a caſtle. As it blew heavy from the eaſtward, and being on a lee-ſhore, we could not go ſo near them as I could have wiſhed; but bringing our guns to bear upon the caſtle and the veſſels, the Spaniards deſerted them, and we completely deſtroyed them, after taking out their fire-arms, &c. one veſſel was laden with brandy and paper. The fire of the caſtle no ways intimidated our brave tars.

I am, &c.

J. BRENTON.

From theſe maritime achievements, in which Britiſh courage has been ſo conſpicuouſly diſplayed during the courſe of the war, we now turn our attention to thoſe tranſacted on the continent.

The cabinet of Peterſburgh, which had with ſuch ſeeming zeal entered into alliance againſt the French republic, with the profeſſed deſign of reſtoring order and civilization to Europe, and which, indeed, appears to have been guided by as diſintereſted motives as any of the other powers, not ſatisfied with carrying on hoſtilities againſt every republican ally of the French, had declared war againſt the court of Spain. The motives of this declaration, as ſet forth in the manifeſto, was, the aſſiſtance given by Spain to the French republic, the lawleſs government of which the Emperor was reſolved, with the aid of his allies, to overthrow. He repreſented, as we have already laid before our readers, that as the Almighty having crowned all his undertakings, hitherto, with ſucceſs, this government (of France), the object of the Divine wrath, was now drawing to its laſt moments; yet having been aided and encouraged by Spain more than by any other power, through fear of its vengeance, after having tried every means to open to this power the true road to honour

nour and glory, by engaging it again to join its forces to thoſe of the coalition—yet, as it perſiſted obſtinately in its errors, the only further mode which he found it expedient to make uſe of was that of war, which he conſequently declared.

The court of Denmark had alſo incurred his Imperial diſpleaſure; and an order was iſſued, that whatever Daniſh veſſels were in the ports of Ruſſia, ſhould be ordered forthwith to quit them. It appears that the Daniſh government had given more encouragement to what are called French principles, than Paul thought fitting for the re-eſtabliſhment of order, religion, and civilized ſociety in Europe:—But the anger of this Imperial reformer was aſſuaged by the appearance of a royal ordinance at Copenhagen, which limited the liberty of the preſs. By this ordinance, all anonymous writings were forbidden; the pain of death was pronounced againſt all writers who ſhould provoke inſurrection; ſuch who attacked the conſtitution and form of monarchical government, or ſhould ſeek to diſſeminate reports that the royal perſon or his family ſhould contemn, were to be baniſhed; writings againſt the Chriſtian religion, or which ſhould tend to bring into contempt other religious ſyſtems, ſubjected the authors, with great propriety, to the ſame puniſhment, ſince to attack religion is to cut off all the bonds which hold ſociety together. Thoſe who inſulted foreign powers were to be confined in priſons. Yet, with theſe exceptions, every perſon was to be at liberty to write whatever he pleaſed.

Sweden was ſtill more obſequious; and, on the requiſition of the Emperor, acceded, in appearance, at leaſt, to the coalition.

The court of Spain, however, was not ſo ſubmiſſive; the King, in his anſwer to Paul's manifeſto, declared, that the alliance which he had formed with the French republic, and which had excited the jealouſy of certain powers, he tried, and ſhould always try, to maintain; that the object of the coalition, newly formed, was leſs

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the chimerical and apparent deſire of re-eſtabliſhing order, than of introducing confuſion, by domineering over ſuch nations as did not enter into its ambitious views; that Ruſſia had been moſt forward in the exerciſe of this domination, its Emperor having uſurped titles which no-ways belonged to him; that the court of Spain diſdained to ſtoop to notice the incoherent and inſolent language of the Ruſſian manifeſto; but that it would continue to repel every aggreſſion which preſumption, and a ſyſtem of falſe combinations, might direct againſt it.

This ſpirited and well wrote reply to the inſolent and fooliſh manifeſto of Paul, was never anſwered by him.

At this period, an event took place, which, as it had certain connection with the affairs of the French republic, ought not to be paſſed over in ſilence. This was the death of Pope Pius VI. the hiſtory of whoſe pontificate has been curſorily related in the tranſactions of 1798. At the time when the allied forces entered Italy, and victory began to declare itſelf in their favour, the French directors, who had continued to exerciſe a ſort of inſpection over the perſon of the Pope, and who had at that time lodged him in the Chartreuſe, near Florence, gave orders for him to leave Tuſcany. His illneſs, and the danger of removing him to Cagliari, in the iſland of Sardinia, at that moment, was ſubſtantiated by a conſultation of the faculty. The French directory, however, fearing that his reſidence in Italy might be attended with danger, (a fear abſurd and chimerical, when almoſt the whole of Italy was in a revolt, occaſioned by their own deſpotiſm,) ordered him to be transferred acroſs the Alps, to Briancon, in which fortreſs he remained, until the progreſs of the Ruſſians threatened the invaſion of the frontiers, when he was again transferred to Valence, a town on the banks of the Rhine.

At Valence he was lodged in the citadel, where he occupied the apartments of the ancient governor, commanding a fine view acroſs the river. Here it was that Pius

Pius VI. peaceably terminated his human career. His apartments were on the ground floor, with a very fine garden, in which he was often drawn about in a rolling chair; for the ſwelling of his legs and thighs did not permit him to walk.

During the ten weeks that he dwelt in Valence, he did not above once go out of the precincts of the caſtle. The Spaniſh commiſſary, who had remarked, that the motion of a carriage was favourable to his health, obtained the conſent of the municipality for him ſometimes to enjoy an airing; but, through exceſs of prudence, and not to give occaſion for public exploſions of pious zeal, he made uſe of this permiſſion only once. Few perſons, therefore, had the means of ſeeing the Pope, during his abode at Valence, although ſeveral preſented themſelves, ſome to render homage to the head of the church, others to gratify their curioſity.

From abroad he received frequent marks of conſolation, which he ſenſibly felt. The young Labrador ſcarcely ſuffered a ſingle day to paſs without viſiting him during his dinner. His features, worn down by ſo many calamities, grew animated when he ſaw this agent of the only power which dared publicly to diſcover any intereſt for him. To him he imparted his little vexations, prayed him to obtain for him what he wanted, to prevent ſuch and ſuch little contradictions from taking place, and due reſpect was generally paid to the interceſſion of the Spaniſh agent. The hard treatment which he had endured, did not extend to that of ſtripping him of his pontifical garments. From the time of his departure from Rome till his death, he wore a long white or purple tunic, bordered with ermine; a red calotte and paſtoral croſs. Wherever he ſtopped, even in France, he was ſuffered to celebrate divine ſervice with as much pomp as the little number of eccleſiaſtics who ſurrounded him, and the ſtraitened place which ſerved him for a church, would permit. His way of living, on the whole, was uniform and tranquil. He divided his time, as at the Chartreuſe, between prayer,

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the reading of a few pious books, the table, and walking; ſome hours were conſecrated to his correſpondence, which was ſtill extenſive. He anſwered whatever conſultations were continued to be addreſſed to him as head of the church. He ſlept little during the night; roſe early; but immediately after dinner, according to the Italian cuſtom, indulged himſelf with a long nap.

From the time of his leaving the Chartreuſe, his health had viſibly declined; the ſwelling of his legs and thighs made rapid progreſs, and a paralytic affection ſeized all the lower parts of his body. Such was his ſtate, when a queſtion was agitated about changing the place of his confinement. Valence appeared too near the comtat of Avignon, which was then in ſome agitation. The directory decreed that he ſhould be transferred to Dijon. Pius was extremely affected at this news, and uttered ſome complaints, the firſt which had eſcaped him ſince his departure from Rome:—"Alas!" cried he, in a mournful tone, "why will they not let me die in peace?" It was inhuman, indeed, that they ſhould have taken this deciſion, from vain terrors to make this old dying man begin another journey, to tear him away from this uniform and tranquil regimen, which alone prolonged his days. The decree of the directory was the real ſentence of death to this unfortunate pontiff. His ſituation which grew worſe every day, ſuſpended the execution, and ſpared the French government the odium of a gratuitous cruelty. The palſy ſpread from his thighs to his inteſtines, when his phyſicians began to deſpair of his life; a diarrhoea, which took place, ſeemed, however to give him ſome relief. For a long time paſt his head had not been ſo ſound as it was at that time; but every other ſymptom announced a ſpeedy diſſolution. The Spaniſh commiſſary ſaw him on the eve of his death, and found him calm and reſigned. Religion, after having encircled him with all its pomp, was become his only ſupport in his laſt moments. Surrounded by a ſmall number

number of friends who had remained faithful to him, he ſlept away life, on the 29th of Auguſt, 1799, in the eighty-ſecond year of his age and the twenty-fourth of his pontificate.

His pious followers had adminiſtered to him the laſt ſuccours of devotion, and rendered to his remains the laſt duties of friendſhip: his body was embalmed and depoſited in a lead coffin, and in the preſence and with the concurrence of the municipality of Valence incloſed in a coffin of wood, which was ſealed at the ſame time with the arms of Spain, and the emblems of liberty—a ſingular union, which crowned the deſtiny of the unfortunate Pius VIth!

We muſt not omit mentioning a concurrence of various and ſingular circumſtances which chance brought around him:—The French officer commanding the eſcort which conducted Pius without the walls of Rome, was named CALVIN:—a name deteſtable to popiſh ears! *Hell (inferno)* was the name of the country to which he withdrew, after the earthquake at Sienna; the French miniſter, under whoſe inſpection he remained at Florence, was a *proteſtant;* and laſtly, the ſeal of the Catholic King, and the inſignia of that *liberty*, in the name of which he had been dethroned, had paraded acroſs Italy, and exiled into France, was placed together on his tomb! Of his former ſplendor, nothing remained but a modeſt wardrobe; a little linen and ſome clothes was all the property of which he could diſpoſe: theſe he bequeathed to the companions of his misfortunes; but the conſtituted authorities of Valence pretended—paltry and ſacrilegious barbarians! that this ſlender legacy belonged to the French nation.

The Archbiſhop of Corinth alone remained at Valence, waiting the ſucceſs of the repeated reclamations which he had made to the French government. He requeſted that he might be permitted to carry back to Italy the body of Pius, a few jewels of little value, a few pieces of plate, and particularly the ſacred vaſes of which

which he had made uſe. But the directors of the French republic did not enter into his feelings, and ſhowed no great diſpoſition to comply with this pious requeſt. The archbiſhop was ſtill waiting with anxiety the deciſion of thoſe unfeeling depoſitaries of authority, when a far more powerful advocate appeared, whoſe preſence was neceſſary for the redreſs of many other wrongs than thoſe which were the object of the archbiſhop's reclamation.

As the life, exile, and death of Pius drew the attention of all Europe, we ſhall cloſe our account of this Pontiff by gratifying our readers with a luminous ſketch of his pontifical reign as drawn by a maſterly hand *

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* *Hiſtorical and Philoſophical Memoirs of Pius the Sixth and his Pontificate.*

It is, above all, in the conduct of Pius VI. in regard to the Jeſuits, that the pricipal traits of his character are perceptible. He never cordially acquieſced in their proſcription. He was ſenſible that the Roman pontiff had loſt in them the principal ſupport of his power; but, at the ſame time, that their intriguing ambition might render them formidable. During the greateſt part of his reign, they ſometimes excited his regret, and ſometimes his fears. He never dared either to protect or to proſecute them openly. They were odious to the crowned heads, whoſe goodwill it was the intereſt of Pius ſo much to conciliate. They encreaſed the irreſolution to which he was naturally inclined; and often obliged him to act with duplicity, the uſual attendant upon weakneſs. This ſituation, which would have been embarraſſing even to a mind poſſeſſed of more energy than his, gave birth to ſuch a ſtrange inconſiſtency of conduct, that thoſe who for more than twenty years had obſerved him narrowly, could not at the moment of his fall, flatter themſelves that they were thoroughly acquainted with his character.—"Heaven forbid, however, that we ſhould wiſh to paint him in too odious colours. It would be unjuſt, (ſays his biographer,) even were he ſtill in poſſeſſion of his elevated rank. It would be baſe, after the cataſtrophe which has precipitated him from it. No; Pius VI. was neither wicked nor weak; but he had ſeveral glaring defects, which could not eſcape the leaſt diſcerning eye; and caprices which formed a ſtriking contraſt with the majeſtic gravity of the part he had to play. Nobody denied him ſeveral brilliant qualities; conſiderable capacity, an agreeable turn of mind, manners at once noble and prepoſſeſſing, an eaſy and florid ſtile

A month had ſcarcely elapſed from the death of the pontiff, ere Rome, his late ſeat of government, fell once more into the hands of the allies. The defeat of the

ſtile of elocution, as much information as could be expected in a prieſt imbued with the principles of his profeſſion, and a taſte for the fine arts tolerably correct. Impatient, iraſcible, obſtinate, and ſuſceptible of prejudices; he was, however, neither obſtinately rancorous, nor premeditatedly malevolent. Few inſtances can be quoted of his ſenſibility; many may be adduced of his good-nature. In leſs difficult circumſtances, and with means proportioned to his views, he would perhaps have paſſed for a prudent ſovereign. But his ruling paſſion was an exceſſive love of fame, which was the principal ſource of his faults and his misfortunes. It was that love of fame, which, when not joined to a ſtrong mind, often degenerates into puerile vanity. He would have wiſhed to ſignalize his pontificate in every manner, and to aſſociate his name with the moſt ſplendid enterprizes. His vanity, which was apparent in every thing, drew upon him frequent mortifications. Deſcended from a family ſcarcely noble, he plumed himſelf, from the very beginning of his reign, upon his illuſtrious race. To the modeſt coat of arms of his anceſtors, he added all the vain embelliſhments of blazonry; and compoſed an eſcutcheon which afforded ample room for ridicule.

His arms, and his name, were repeated a thouſand times over in Rome, and in the reſt of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. They are to be ſeen, not only upon the monuments which he erected, and upon ſuch as he repaired, but even upon thoſe in which he made the ſmalleſt change; and, unleſs Rome be deſtroyed utterly, the name of *Pius Sextus*, thanks to his provident vanity! will deſcend to the lateſt poſterity. It was this incurable vanity, rather than his piety or taſte for the arts, which ſuggeſted to him the idea of conſtructing a ſacriſty by the ſide of St. Peter's church. This monument of vanity coſt above 1,600,000 Roman crowns.

In order to erect this monument to his glory, much rather than to that of the God whoſe vicar he called himſelf, it was neceſſary to pull down the temple of Venus, for which the celebrated Michael Angelo had ſo much veneration, that he would have conſidered the mere idea of touching it as ſacrilege.

But while Pius was exhauſting the public treaſury on vain embelliſhments, ſtatues, obeliſks, &c. the Roman people were ſtarving through the want of the neceſſaries of life. A wag, who preferred food to obeliſks, gave, on this occaſion, a leſſon to his holineſs, by applying to him a well known paſſage of the goſpel. He wrote theſe words at the bottom of the obeliſk—

"*Signore,*

the French had produced the ſame effects in the Roman republic as in other parts of Italy. Macdonald, in his retreat from Naples, had left at Rome about 3,500

"*Signore, &c.*
"*Lord, command that theſe ſtones be made bread.*"

Bells had a double title to his predilection. They were connected with that worſhip, by the pomp of which he was ſo much flattered; and the larger their ſize, the farther off did they announce the holy perſonage by whoſe orders they were ſet in motion. Malignity reproached him, in this particular, with more than one grave puerility. There was, in St. Peter's church at Rome, a bell which only weighed 21,244lb. He ordered it to be re-caſt in the year 1783, with the addition of 400 quintals of metal. Three years after he had another caſt of 280 quintals, and *chriſtened* it with great ſolemnity. Barbarous verſes were afterwards engraven upon it, which attracted the admiration of the devout, and offended men of taſte. It was loaded with coſtly pearls, and adorned with eight dolphins, a crown, and a thouſand other ornaments; but the founder's art had failed him, or it had been enchanted—for alas! upon trial, the bell would not ſound! The wits made themſelves merry at the expence of the bell, the founder, and the god-father—his holineſs.

But it was in the performance of his pontifical functions, above all, that his taſte for oſtentation was diſplayed, and in that his vanity found frequent opportunities of gratification. It muſt be confeſſed, that, on theſe occaſions, he was as much favoured by nature, as by the diſplay of the pompous ceremonies of the Romiſh church. He was, in the whole contour of his figure, one of the handſomeſt men of his time. To a very lofty ſtature, he joined a noble and expreſſive ſet of features, and a florid complexion, which the hand of time itſelf ſeemed to ſpare. He contrived to wear his pontifical habits in ſuch a way, that they deprived him of none of his perſonal advantages. In every thing he did, he diſplayed them with a refinement of coquetry, which gave large ſcope to ridicule. When elevated to the papacy, he had, in conformity with a cuſtom that had grown into a law, laid aſide the peruke which he wore while cardinal. His forehead was entirely bald; but there remained behind, and on each ſide of his head, a ring of hair of the moſt brilliant white, which gave him a look at once noble and venerable. He had alſo one of the handſomeſt legs in Italy, and was not a little vain of it. Not wiſhing that his long pontifical robes ſhould entirely conceal that part of his perſon, to the adorning of which he was always ſcrupulouſly attentive, he took great care to hold them up on one ſide, ſo that one of his legs was entirely expoſed to view. This affected

3,500 French, including thoſe employed in different adminiſtrations. The defeat of the republican army at Piacenza, was the ſignal of general inſurrection againſt

affected diſplay of his hair and his legs, ſo unworthy of a grave pontiff, and of which his predeceſſor, Ganganelli, would have been aſhamed, gave offence to the pious, and occaſioned a thouſand ſquibs and ſallies of wit from the ſatirical Italians.

But it was on high feſtivals and ſolemnities when Pius ſhone in all the majeſty of pontifical ſplendor; and, indeed, nothing was ſo ſtriking as to ſee him on the days of great parade, crowned with the triple diadem, arrayed in robes of the moſt dazzling white, which contraſted with the ſplendor of the Roman purple, ſoaring in a manner over a crowd of eccleſiaſtics of every rank, and thereby ſeeming to announce his ſway over the univerſal church.

On theſe ſolemn occaſions, all the members of the clergy came, and repeatedly *adored him*; and each claſs in a different way. The cardinals were not permitted to kiſs his hand till they had bowed down before his throne. The prelates, and heads of orders, bowed ſtill more humbly, and only roſe as high as his knees; while the inferior clergy were proſtrate at his feet.

The allegory of the ſtatuary proſtrate before the work of his own hands, was never better applied than to this ſtupid veneration, particularly of the cardinals, for the ſovereign pontiff, the creature of their intrigues and their caprices; in which not one of them, perhaps, ſeriouſly thought that he ſaw the work of the Holy Ghoſt.

"It is needleſs to ſay with what an eye of pity philoſophy looks down upon this humiliating homage, paid by a number of reaſonable beings to one of their fellow-creatures. Many ſpectators, however, many even of thoſe who were the moſt ſtrongly guarded againſt all theſe vain illuſions, could not help feeling a ſtrong emotion at the ſight of the pomp that ſurrounded St. Peter's chair, eſpecially when it was filled by Pius VI. The greateſt magnificence accompanied him wherever he went. A carriage, at the back of which he was ſeated alone in an arm chair richly ornamented, moved forward, eſcorted by ſervants on horſeback, and in long clothes, driven by a coachman and poſtilions, with their heads uncovered, rolling along majeſtically ſlow between two lines of foot ſoldiers, and followed by detachments of light-horſe and cuiraſſiers. It was impoſſible for any thing to be more ſtriking.

"But when he officiated in the grand ceremonies of the church, it was difficult even for proteſtant heretics, nay even for freethinkers, to avoid feeling a ſort of religious enthuſiaſm.

"Pius VI. like him whoſe vicar he called himſelf, was endowed with a two-fold nature. Arrayed in his pontifical habits, ſurrounded by the pomp of religious ceremonies, and employed in the diſtribution

gainſt the French in the Roman ſtate, as it had been at Naples and Florence. The approach of the inſurgents inſtructed the French what had been the ſtate of the

diſtribution of celeſtial treaſures, Pius VI. appeared to the Romans to be a god."

On his return to the palace of the Vatican, he was no more in their eyes, particularly during the laſt years of his pontificate, than a man expoſed to their murmurs and bitter ſarcaſms.

This double ſovereignty was ſo far ſingular, that the ſceptre conſidered itſelf as inviolable under ſhelter of the tiara; that the devotion of the ſubjects ſeemed to enſure their obedience; and that the benedictions and indulgencies, and all the celeſtial favours, of which the monarchical demi-god had undertaken to be the diſtributor, had at once for object and reſult, to ſanctify and to diſarm them. Accordingly, nothing leſs than the violent hurricane of the French revolution was neceſſary to tear up by the roots that gigantic tree

"Of which the head approached the ſkies, and the feet reached down to the manſions of the dead."

It remains to be obſerved, that all theſe pompous mummeries, of which we have juſt given a few ſpecimens, had long been an appendage to the pontifical throne; but no Pope had combined in the ſame degree as Pius VI. every thing neceſſary to enſure their effect. His celebrated predeceſſor, Ganganelli, much more meritorious than he in a variety of reſpects, was humane, affable, and generous. He poſſeſſed all the domeſtic virtues; but he retained under the tiara all the modeſty of his former ſituation in life; and felt a ſort of philoſophical diſdain for oſtentation. The principal perſons about him, ſenſible how much the parade of ceremonies added to the temporal power of the Roman catholic church, and encreaſed the illuſion of which it ſtands ſo much in need, were vexed at Ganganelli's neglecting, with a ſort of affectation, that external dignity which impoſes ſo much upon the multitude. The ſacred charm was about to vaniſh. The reigning pontiff ſeemed deſirous of diſtinguiſhing himſelf only by his ſimplicity. Braſchi, on the contrary, poſſeſſed in his manners, in his taſte, and in his exterior, every thing that was calculated to impreſs mankind with reſpect. It is ſuppoſed that this circumſtance was the leading motive that influenced them to elevate Braſchi to the pontificate, hoping thereby, once more, the chair of St. Peter, debaſed by Ganganelli, would riſe again, and ſhine with renovated ſplendor. They were not, in this reſpect, deceived.

The

the armies in the northern part of Italy. All communication from without was cut off, where the inhabitants of the country, who had been cruelly plundered by

The jubillee of 1775 (in all probability the laſt) was celebrated by Pius with a degree of ſplendor and magnificence ſurpaſſing that of all preceding ones. One of the principal circumſtances of the feſtival, which, indeed, may be called the firſt act of the ſacred farce, is the opening of the famous *porta Santa*, or ſacred door. This door, which is one of thoſe of St. Peter's church, remained conſtantly ſhut, except during the holy year in which jubilee is celebrated. It was then opened with a parade of which Pius VI. took care not to diminiſh the effect. It was his office to preſide over the demolition of a brick wall, that cloſed the entrance of the ſacred door. Advancing with majeſtic gravity, he ſtruck the firſt ſtroke, and inſtantly the wall fell to the ground under the redoubled blows of the workmen, to whom the ſignal had been given. The pious ſpectators eagerly ſeized on the materials; each ſtone being an object of high veneration. By their contact with that which was laid twenty-four years ago by the ſacred hands of the ſovereign pontiff, they had acquired the virtue of curing all manner of diſeaſes. According to cuſtom, the *porta ſanta* remained open during all the holy year, and was the ſcene of the moſt ridiculous mummeries. The Pope himſelf did not paſs through it without exhibiting marks of the profoundeſt reſpect; while the pilgrims, diſdaining the numerous paſſages which lead into the church of St. Peter, entered it only by crawling under the ſacred door, upon their hands and knees. It was ſhut with great ſolemnity at the end of the year. The Pope approached ſitting upon a kind of throne, and ſurrounded by the cardinals; and an anthem was ſung accompanied by loud muſic:—it was the lyre of Amphion about to re-build the walls of Thebes. The pontiff then deſcended with a gold trowel in his hand; laid the firſt ſtone of a wall which was to laſt twenty-five years; put a little mortar upon it, and re-aſcended his throne. Real maſons took his place, and completed the blocking up of the ſacred door, and the ceremony cloſed with a ſolemn maſs. Thus did the Roman catholics laviſh the auguſt myſteries of their religion, ſometimes upon the baptiſm of a bell, and ſometimes upon the re-building of a wall.

Yet with all his unbounded deſire for the incenſe of flattery and of fame, his very enemies muſt confeſs, that he had always been irreproachable as to purity of morals. He divided all his time between his religious duties, his cloſet, and the library of the Vatican. He went out very ſeldom, and always with ſome company.

Pius

by the French commiſſaries and agents, were but too well diſpoſed to yield to the ſuggeſtions of the prieſts, who were inceſſant in their provocations to every act of hoſtility againſt every thing which bore any relation to the French, or the exiſting Roman government. In Rome alſo, every part of the government itſelf was diſorganized;—the army was without bread, without ſhoes, and without pay—the magazines without arms or proviſion for a ſiege. The evil became ſo great, that the ambaſſador, Bertholio, conſented at length to lay aſide his dictatorial power. The conſulate was ſuſpended. A committee of men of character and probity was choſen. The city was put under military law. The garriſon was under the orders of General Garnier.

Rome, inveſted thus on every ſide, was left to its own reſources. The inſurgents of Tuſcany had reinforced thoſe of the Roman republic, and blockaded the city on one ſide; thoſe of Naples aided by the troops of the country, on the other, having poſſeſſion of all the poſts and places about Rome.—The garriſon made an incurſion into the country as far as Viterbo, but were repulſed. The number of inſurgents, and of Neapolitans, increaſed daily on the right, and menaced Rome on the ſide of Freſcati. General Garnier reſolved at length (Auguſt 8th) to attack them, but againſt

Pius entertained the moſt favourable idea of his own capacity. Rather headſtrong than firm, he was conſtantly undoing what he had done; and this combination of vanity and weakneſs was attended with too ſerious conſequences. Coldly affable, he never felt a real affection for any one; nor never knew what it was completely to unboſom himſelf, unleſs when labouring under the impreſſion of fear.

But the long pontificate of Pius VI. was a grievance which neither the cardinals nor the people of Rome could pardon him. In ſhort, a concurrence of unlucky circumſtances, to which he knew not how to accommodate himſelf, added to his improvidence and to his vanity, the principal ſource of his prodigality, his blind attachment to his infamous nephew, Braſchi, rendered him in the end more odious than many Princes who had diſgraced their pontificates with undiſguiſed crimes and immoralities.

againſt the poſition they had taken, and their vaſt ſuperiority of numbers, no impreſſion could be made, and the French were compelled to retreat, after an ineffectual ſtruggle. This check encouraged the aſſailants; and Garnier, fearing leſt his retreat to Civita Vecchia ſhould be cut off, ordered the troops at firſt to fall towards this place. But a ſentiment of national honour led him to change this determination; and it was decided, that the women, children, and baggage, and part of the artillery, ſhould be ſent off; but that all capable of bearing arms ſhould remain to the laſt extremity. Preſſed ſtill more cloſely by the inſurgents, and the poſt of Freſcati becoming ſtill more dangerous; the Roman national guard, headed by the Princes Santa Croce and Borgheſe, joining themſelves to the French, the General reſolved on another attack (Auguſt 20th), and victory decided itſelf in their favour. The combined armies of the Neapolitans and inſurgents were attacked on three points at Freſcati.—The engagement laſted only two hours. The entrenchments were ſtormed, and the army put to flight, after a dreadful carnage. The Neapolitan Prince of Bocca Romana, who commanded, narrowly eſcaped being taken priſoner. The French took twenty pieces of cannon, colours, and a great quantity of ſtores, and returned to Rome, leaving the country ſtrewed with the dead bodies of the Neapolitans and inſurgents.

But it was from the papers which fell into the hands of the French, on the flight of the Neapolitans, that they were informed of the fate which awaited them. By theſe they found that the combined armies had become maſters of Capua, Gaeta, and every other point on the ſouth of Italy. They ſoon perceived, alſo, that it was not only inſurgents and Neapolitans againſt whom they were to contend—the Auſtrians, to the amount of 2,600. took poſſeſſion of Civita Caſtellana; the Neapolitans and inſurgents rallied again at Freſcati, under the command of Marſhal Bourcard; a diviſion of the Ruſſians were on the march; an Engliſh ſquadron blocked

blocked up Civita Vecchia, and ſummoned Rome to ſurrender.

The French garriſon at Rome had upwards of a third part in the hoſpitals. Upon holding a council of war, it was decided to enter into a negociation with the Engliſh, who propoſed the ſame capitulation as had taken place at Gaeta. The inſtructions from the court of Naples, contained propoſals for delivering up the Neapolitan patriots; but this propoſition was rejected with aborrence; the French declaring, that they would never conſent to an action ſo unworthy, but would rather ſell their own lives than thoſe of their friends. The demand was in conſequence of the inſtructions given. —Admiral Trowbridge felt the baſeneſs of the inſtructions, and wanted no inducement to diſobey them. He remembered with horror the ſcenes of murder lately committed at Naples by the violation of the capituiation; and when the Princeſs Belmont, whoſe name ſtood firſt on the bloody liſt to be conſigned, was mentioned to the French general, who peremptorily refuſed to deliver her up. The brave Engliſh admiral, with an expreſſive motion of his arms (for he did not ſpeak the French language), ſhewed at once his approbation of Garnier's refuſal, and his abhorrence of a deed, of which no man of honour would degrade himſelf by becoming the ſhameful inſtrument.

The capitulation took place, haſtened alſo by a conſpiracy which had been formed againſt the French in Rome, of which the General of the national guard was the chief. The French ſet ſail for France, carrying with them thoſe Romans and Neapolitans that were attached to their cauſe. Not a ſingle perſon either at Rome, nor in the Roman ſtate, was given up to aſſaſſination, as they had cruelly been at Naples and Capua.

The Neapolitan army entered Rome (September 30th), the trees of liberty were cut down and burnt, and the arms of the republic deſtroyed. The Neapolitan flag was hoiſted on the caſtle of St. Angelo, the ſeals were put on the Quirinal palace, on thoſe of the Vatican,

Vatican, containing a number of valuable monuments packed up, and which the French in their haſte neglected to take on board, and on all the public offices of the republic. The mob paraded the ſtreets, committing exceſſes in the houſes of ſuch as they deemed revolutioniſts, and carrying about, in ſtupid deriſion, the buſt of Brutus, to which a few months before they had paid a kind of adoration.—But the *hoſannah* and *the crucify* of the mob had been equally indiſcrimate in every country and in every age.

When we were giving a narration of the French political tranſactions of the laſt year, 1798, we ſlightly mentioned the raſhneſs of ſending the flower of their armies, and the ſtrength of their marine, to the gulfs of Syria, while war was ſtill raging on the one ſide, and peace ſeemed ſtill at a diſtance, imagination had not painted all the direful conſequences that might reſult from that diſtant and perilous expedition.

It were uſeleſs to dwell on this point, ſince the ſimple narration of the events which took place, moſt of which may be attributed to the fatal policy which dictated or conſented to that fatal expedition, juſtify too powerfully our opinion then given.

It was then that we left General Bonaparte in tranquil poſſeſſion of Egypt, after repeated and bloody victories gained over the Mamelukes, and after quelling a violent inſurrection of the Turks, which had taken place againſt the authority of Cairo. But, notwithſtanding the profound calm which ſucceeded this laſt ſtorm, the conquerors could not reſign themſelves to perfect ſecurity. England, jealous of the leaſt appearance of danger to her Oriental colonies and ſettlements, could not politically ſuffer the eſtabliſhment of ſuch a colony near its Eaſt India poſſeſſions; and on that account had combined with the Porte a project of general attack, to expel, if poſſible, theſe dangerous neighbours from their newly-acquired conqueſts.

The principal preparations were made in Syria, under the orders, and by the care of Pacha Djezzar, who

was to be ſupported by an army which was to traverſe Aſia Minor. The attack on the frontiers of Egypt, on the ſide of the deſert of Syria, was to be favoured by a ſtrong diverſion towards the mouths of the Nile, and by different attacks executed by the wrecks of Murad Bey's army in Upper Egypt, united to other hoſtile parties. It was to direct the execution of this vaſt plan, and to co-operate in it by maritime means, the commodore, Sir Sidney Smith, had left Portſmouth the preceding autumn, on board the Tyger, of 84 guns, and ſailed for the Levant, where he haſtened the preparations for this campaign in Egypt.

Commodore Hood continued to block up, with four ſhips of the line, and five frigates, the port of Alexandria, and the mouths of the Nile: that officer had experienced the impracticability of burning and deſtroying the fleet of tranſports and French frigates without the aid of a debarkation of troops conſiderable enough to attack Alexandria itſelf. The reinforcement of light veſſels which the combined fleets of Turks and Ruſſians, at anchorage under the iſle of Scio, had ſent to Admiral Hood, and which appeared before Alexandria at the time of the inſurrection at Cairo, had been of little or no ſervice. The reports that were ſpread of the burning of the French veſſels in the old port, and the official news publiſhed by the Ottoman Porte, on the report of the Pacha of Rhodes, had no better foundation.

The approach of ſuch an enterpriſing officer as Sir Sydney Smith, was ſoon announced to Bonaparte, and who conſidered his arrival to be the epocha and ſignal of offenſive operations, reſolved to prevent him, and to march into Syria to deſtroy the preparations made by the Pacha Djezzar there. The two months which intervened from the entire ſubmiſſion of Egypt, to the moment when the troops deſtined for the expedition of Syria were to march, were employed in finiſhing military ſurveys, confided to different officers, and in journeys

neys which the ſcientific members and artiſts of the different claſſes of the Inſtitute, had undertaken.

The ſurvey of the Lake of Menzala, was the moſt conſiderable of thoſe labours, and was conducted under the direction of General Andreoſſi. who founded the roads of Damietta, and of Cape Bongau, performed the ſame operations at the mouth of the Bibeh, and entered the Lake Menzala, where he was attacked, but without ſucceſs, by the troops of Djermes, ſet on by the Arabs. Andreoſſi, after having taken an exact chart of the Lake Menzala, viſited the Natron Lakes, accompanied by Berthollet, to make new experiments.

It is not neceſſary to enumerate all the names of ſuch ſcientific men as were employed in thoſe labours, the moſt complete which were ever undertaken in any part of the globe. It is to be hoped that their reſults will not be entirely loſt to the republic of letters and ſcience.

Theſe charts, drawn by that enlightened officer and philoſopher, Andreoſſi, and others, the great baſes of which have been determined by the obſervations of Nouet and Mechain, have been publiſhed, as well as the drawings of Dutertre and Denon, and alſo the level of the canal of Suez, made with rigorous exactneſs.

The reſolution of this laſt problem, that of the exiſtence of the canal which joined the Red Sea to the Mediterranean, occupied all the attention of General Bonaparte. He had, towards the middle of November, detached, under the command of General Bon, a corps of 1,500 men, who had taken poſſeſſion of Suez. Thither he went himſelf at the latter end of December, with Monge and Berthollet, where he at firſt took a very detailed ſurvey of the town and the adjacent coaſts, ordered the conſtruction of certain works, provided for the defence of this important poſt, and made ſeveral regulations favourable to commerce. It was here, among other deputations, that he received that of the Chriſtian monks of Mount Sinai. Theſe pious Cenobites brought him the humble offering of the fruits

fruits of their mountain, and preſenting to him the charter of protection and toleration, given originally, and even ſigned by Mahomet, requeſted that protection to be ſtill continued under the new regimen. Bonaparte received them with great expreſſions of kindneſs, accepted of their little preſent, and with his own hand counterſigned Mahomet's original charter to the Cenobites of Mount Sinai.

To aſcertain the ſubject with philoſophical exactneſs, Bonaparte, bending his courſe to the north of Suez, found the entrance of the canal, and followed it for the ſpace of four leagues. Paſſing afterwards by the fort of Adgerond, traverſing the deſert, and returning by Belbeis, he again found, in the Oaſis of Honoreb, the veſtiges of the ſame canal, in its entrance upon the cultivated and watered lands of Lower Egypt. Having aſſured himſelf of theſe two outlets, he charged Peyre, engineer of bridges and roads, to take the level, beginning his operation from Suez. During this intereſting ſurvey, Bonaparte was informed of the movements of Djezzar, whom the Grand Signor had named Pacha of Egypt. He had already ſent a body of troops towards El-Ariſch, at the entrance of the deſert on the ſide of Syria: the diviſion of the advanced guard, commanded by General Regnier, was alſo collected at Salchich, on the frontier of the deſert on the ſide of Egypt. This General received orders to occupy and fortify Cathich, where General La Grange marched with a demi-brigade, and took poſſeſſion of this poſt on the ſame day that Bonaparte returned back to Cairo, where he gave his laſt orders for the organization and march of the army of Syria, and for the employ and different commands of the troops which were to remain in Egypt. This army conſiſted of four diviſions of infantry, under the command of Generals Kleber, Bon, Lannes, and Regnier, amounting to about 10,000 men, a troop of horſe conſiſting of about 800, under General Murat; 1,700 engineers and artillery, 400 guides, horſe and foot, and eighty-eight dromedaries.

daries. The difficulty of tranſporting artillery and ammunition had conſtrained Bonaparte in theſe different diviſions with pieces much below the ordinary proportion; the reſerve of the park conſiſted but of twenty-ſeven pieces, of which four were of twelve, fifteen of eight, eight of three, and fourteen mortars.

The garriſons which were to remain in Lower Egypt were formed of the 19th demi-brigade, three battalions of demi-brigades of the expedition of Syria, the Nautic and Malteſe legions, and the depots of cavalry. General Dugua was charged with the command of Cairo, General Menou was ſtationed at Roſetta, Adjutant-general Almeyras received, with the command of Damietta, orders to haſten the finiſhing of the fortifications. Alexandria, which became more and more important, and which, threatened by the Engliſh, was alſo menaced by the plague, that terrible ſcourge of the human race, and of which ſymptoms began to diſcover themſelves, was entruſted to General Marmont.

General Deſaix remained with his army in Upper Egypt, redoubling his diligence and activity to keep in awe the remains of the Mamelukes, and prevent Murad Bey from taking advantage of the expedition into Syria.

Such was the political and military ſituation in which Bonaparte left Egypt.

The diviſion commanded by General Kleber, embarked at Damietta, and was tranſported to Tinch, on the Lake Menzala, of the navigation of which the French were become maſters, and a few gun-boats built at Boulach. Kleber arrived at Cathich (4th February), where he was joined by General Regnier's advanced guard, and marched on to El-Ariſch, the fortreſs of which was garriſoned by 2,000 troops of the Pacha of St. John d'Acre. The village of El-Ariſch was carried with the bayonet by Regnier's diviſion: the Arnauts, and Mangrabins, who defended it, after having

having made a brave reſiſtance, withdrew precipitately into the fort.

Scarcely was it blocked up by Regnier's diviſion, when a reinforcement of infantry and cavalry, eſcorting a convoy of proviſions, appeared in ſight of El-Ariſch, and encamped on a riſing ground, covered by a very ſteep ravine, Kleber came up at that moment, and approved Regnier's project of turning the ravine, and ſurpriſing the camp of the Mamelukes during the night. This attack was ſucceſsful; the camp was carried, the corps of cavalry cut in pieces, taken, or deſtroyed; a number of horſes, camals, ſtores, and proviſions, and the whole of the convoy, fell into the hands of the French. The two other diviſions of the army formed their junction, a few days after, at El-Ariſch, and were at length joined by Bonaparte. The fort of El-Ariſch was cannonaded, and ſurrendered in two days.

The artillery neceſſary for the reduction of St. John d'Acre, could be tranſported only by ſea, and Bonaparte hazarded its embarkation from Alexandria. Vice-admiral Perree, with three frigates, had ſailed during the night to eſcort the gun-boats, and had orders to cruize before Jaffa.

The ſecrecy and pomptitude of the preparations for the expedition of Syria, and the celerity of the firſt attack, ſurpriſed the Turks. As this kind of war was as new to the Ottomans, as the political ſyſtem which had engaged them in it; and as it was neceſſary for them to ſend troops and ſtores from the extremity of the empire into the provinces, for the defence of which, ſuch foreſight and operations were equally unuſual, the preparations were very ſlow. At Conſtantinople, the Engliſh, notwithſtanding the new alliance, the important ſupport of their naval forces, and the activity of Sir Sidney Smith, could not obtain the means for the entire execution of the plan concerted for the attack on Egypt. The firſt diviſion of the Janizaries, who were to form the army of the Grand Vizier, and traverſe Anatolia,

Anatolia, had ſcarcely aſſembled at Scutari; the corps which was deſtined to act on the coaſts of Egypt, under the protection of the Engliſh ſquadron, was not yet organized The Ottoman Porte had however, at that period, ridded itſelf of a domeſtic enemy, whoſe inſubordination had for a long time bid defiance to its authority, and, who, at one time, had excited very ſerious alarms even to the Imperial ſeat of empire. The alliance between the Turkiſh and Ruſſian courts was fatal to any further reſiſtance on the part of Paſſwan Oglou; and whatever means to cruſh this formidable inſurgent this ſtrange alliance had given the Turkiſh cabinet, policy led it to enter into terms of reconciliation. The motive or pretence of this inſurrection is ſtated to have been a refuſal on the part of the Turkiſh government to renew the hati-cherif, granted by Paſſwan's anceſtors, in virtue of which this powerful feudatory was exempted from certain tributes, which he would otherwiſe have paid, on account of his extenſive poſſeſſions. The exemption which he claimed, and which was now accorded to him, had been granted to his anceſtors in recompenſe of the ſervices which they had rendered to the Porte, in one of its former wars with Auſtria. He himſelf had enjoyed it, but without previous confirmation of the Emperor, till the period when he ſaw himſelf deprived of it, after new arrangements with the court of Vienna, relative to contributions. The Porte found itſelf releaſed from a dangerous enemy by this reconciliation, and concluded a treaty, of which the principal articles were, a declaration on the part of Paſſwan, that he never had an intention to put himſelf in rebellion againſt the orders of the Grand Signior, but that his defence was directed only againſt the ſubaltern agents, of whom he had to complain;—he engaged to ſend away all the ſtrangers who were in the environs of Widden his head-quarters;—to forbid their return on pain of death;—to ſwear ſolemnly on the Koran, to be faithful to his engagements, and never to give cauſe of diſcontent to the Porte;—

Porte;—while that court, on its ſide, beſtowed full and free pardon on Paſſwan, confirmed him in the government of Widden, with the dignity of Pacha, and engaged that every thing ſhould be placed on the ſame footing as when Paſſwan received this government.

Meanwhile, Sir Sidney Smith, informed of the firſt movements of Bonaparte, endeavoured to impede his operations, by making attempts on Alexandria, which he bombarded; but without any other effect, than that of ſinking two tranſports. After this fruitleſs enterpriſe, he ſailed to the aſſiſtance of the Pacha of Syria, who at firſt did not think of defending himſelf in St. John d'Acre, limiting his wiſhes and exertions to ſecure his retreat; and to convey away his women, and his treaſure. The Britiſh commodore anchored in the road of Caiffa, with the Tiger, the Theſeus, and the Alliance frigate.

In the mean time, the French army continued its painful march acroſs the deſert, filing along by diviſions, at one and two days diſtance, in order that they might not exhauſt the wells of water. It is difficult to form an idea of the fatigue of a march acroſs ſands, where bodies of troops and thouſands of men and horſes may be ſo eaſily led out of the way.—Nay, where Cambyſes loſt above 60,000 choſen troops, and where whole armies have been overwhelmed and ſwallowed up by the floating mountains of burning ſands. Kleber, with his diviſion, was miſled by the guides; the two diviſions which followed him, were deceived by the traces of the firſt; and it was only after forty-eight hours march, that the army, after having ſupported the torments of burning thirſt, reached Kahn Jonneſſe, the firſt village of Paleſtine, on leaving the deſert, whence they diſcovered the cultivated plains of Gaza.

A corps of Mamelukes, commanded by Abdalla Pacha, encamped before Kahn Jonneſſe, had fallen back on Gaza: thither Bonaparte marched; and, after driving away the Mamelukes, took poſſeſſion of the town, where he found very conſiderable magazines of ſtores

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and proviſions, which the Turks had neither the time nor the means of taking away.

It was at Jaffa, the celebrated Joppa of ancient times, that Bonaparte met with the firſt reſiſtance. This town, without exterior works or ditches, was defended by a wall, flanked by ſtrong towers, and mounted with cannon. Two little forts by the ſea-ſide commanded the fort and the road; the trench was opened, a battery was eſtabliſhed againſt the higheſt ſquare tower, and two counter-batteries, whilſt a falſe attack was marked out at the north of the place. The Turks defended themſelves with unuſual bravery, and made two ſallies, in which, however, they ſuſtained conſiderable loſs; but the batteries having rendered the breach practicable, Bonaparte ordered the attack. The carbineers of the 22d brigade of light-infantry, whoſe commander was killed, marched at the head of the column, under the command of Adjutant-general Rambeaud. The engagement was bloody. The French, with their wonted intrepidity, mounted the breach, and lodged themſelves in the tower: the Turks were no leſs reſolute in defending it. They rallied, and attacked the column, ſupported by General Lanne's diviſion, who forced every poſt in ſucceſſion, and at length gained poſſeſſion of the fort next the ſea. The greateſt part of the garriſon, compoſed of 1,000 Turkiſh cannoneers, and 2,500 Mangrabins, or Arnauts, were put to the ſword. The Egyptians, who eſcaped the carnage, were ſent back to Egypt. It was with difficulty that General Robin, who took the command after the aſſault, could reſtrain the diſorder and fury of the ſoldiers.

After making Jaffa and its port the principal depot of the army for the artillery and ſtores which he expected from Damietta and Alexandria, Bonaparte marched towards St. John d'Acre, with the three diviſions of Kleber, Bon, and Lannes; the fourth, that of Regnier, which had led the way through the deſert, compoſed the rearguard, at two days diſtance from the

army, which he had orders to rejoin at St. John d'Acre, taking the coaſt by Cæſarea and Cantoura. The French advanced guard diſcovered, in approaching Zetta, a body of cavalry, under Abdalla Pacha, who, to retard the march of the army, had taken a poſition on the heights of Corſum, flanking himſelf by the mountain of Naplouſium, the Samaria of Holy Writ, on which were poſted ſeveral thouſands of Naplouſians.

When Generals Kleber, Bon, and Murat, marched towards the cavalry of Abdalla, ſo manœuvring as to bring him to an engagement, which he cautiouſly avoided. Lanne's diviſion marched upon the right, and ſo cut off the Pacha from the Naplouſians; thoſe laſt took flight; but the light infantry who purſued them, having entangled themſelves too much in the defiles, the Naplouſians rallied, and attacked in their turn, purſuing the French to the outlets of the defiles. Barthelmy, the commander of the demi-brigade, was killed. Two days after Kleber took poſſeſſion of Caiffa, at the foot of the celebrated Mount Carmel, a town ſurrounded with a good wall, and flanked with towers, and which Djezzar had ordered to be evacuated, after having diſarmed the caſtle which defended the fort and road. The advanced guard of this diviſion diſcovered, on arriving at Caiffa, the diviſion of the Engliſh ſquadron which had caſt anchor. The boats of the Tiger drew near the coaſt, reconnoitered their advanced guard at the foot of Mount Carmel, and fought by their fire to harraſs their march.

The arrival of Sir Sidney Smith re-kindled the expiring courage of the Pacha of St. John d'Acre, and encreaſed his means of reſiſtance, by ſending him an ancient French engineer of great merit, to whoſe friendſhip he was indebted for his deliverance from the priſon of the Temple, and for his return to England. Colonel Philippeaux cauſed the fortreſs to be repaired, which was fortified after the mode of the fourteenth century, with courtines flanked with ſquare towers.

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The Captain of the Theſeus had furniſhed him with whatever means he could diſpoſe of to repair this ancient bulwark of Syria. After all, it is probable that theſe labours would have proved inſufficient to ſuſtain Djezzar againſt the attacks of the French, if, at the very moment when Bonaparte had finiſhed the inveſtment of St. John d'Acre, the fleet of gun-boats, which had on board the greateſt part of his battering cannon and his ſtores, had not fallen into the hands of the Engliſh. This fleet was doubling Mount Carmel, when it was perceived by the Tiger;—purſued, and ſoon overtaken by the fire from the ſhips: ſeven of the veſſels which compoſed it, ſtruck their flag: a corvette and two ſmall veſſels made their eſcape. This loſs, irreparable to the French, in the ſituation in which they then were, decided the fate of St. John d'Acre; for, notwithſtanding the ſtate of defence in which Colonel Philippeaux had put it, the boldneſs and intrepidity of the French in their attack might have compenſated for the want of heavy artillery, and all the machinery neceſſary to preſs on a ſiege: but it is evident, that theſe objects, ſo neceſſary to the French, not only loſt and deſtroyed, but taken and tranſported for the defence of this ſame place, ought, if they were well employed, to make the balance of means turn on the ſide of the beſieged. The cannon and ſtores were inſtantly landed, and the veſſels which tranſported them were armed and employed to harraſs the French poſts eſtabliſhed on the coaſt, in order to intercept or diſturb the communications and convoys. In one of theſe attacks, the commander of the poſt of Caiffa, Lambert, took an Engliſh boat and one thirty-two pounder. Bonaparte having retired with the external poſts, encamped his army on an inſulated height, which borders the ſea, at about a mile diſtant, and which, ſtretching to the north as far as Cape Blanc, commands, on the weſtern ſide, a plain of about a league and three quarters, bounded by the mountains ſituated between St. John d'Acre and the river Jordan.

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The French command, after having taken poſſeſſion of Saffet, Nazareth, and Scheffam, in order to clear the paſſes on the road to Damaſcus, reconnoitered St. John d'Acre more accurately with his officers of artillery, and engineers Dommantin and Caffarelli, and determined to attack the front on the eaſt of the town. The trench was opened (March 20th) at 900 feet from the place. The French puſhed their works at firſt with ſo much activity, that the ninth day after the opening of the trench, batteries, and counter-batteries, mounted as at Jaffa, with four pieces of twelve, eight pieces of eight, and four mortars, had pierced the tower, while a breach of the mine had been puſhed on to blow up the counterſcarp. The mine was ſprung, but it only made a ſmall aperture in the glacis: the French thought the counterſcarp injured. The ditch, which had been too ſuperficially explored, had appeared to be of little depth. The ardour of the grenadiers, and the contempt which the taking of Jaffa had inſpired for ſuch antiquated fortifications, did not ſuffer them to deliberate. Inſtead, however, of finding every obſtacle ſmooth and levelled, they were ſtopped by a ditch of fifteen feet, of which ſcarcely half was filled up by the rubbiſh of the breach. They reſolutely plunged into it, placed ladders, climbed the breach, but found themſelves ſeparated by the counterſcarp from the troops which were to ſupport them. The officers who headed the attack, under a moſt dreadful fire, Mailly, Leſcalles, and Langier, periſhed. The Turks, who had abandoned the tower, re-entered it, and the French retreated to their trenches.

The want of ſucceſs in this firſt attack, and the hopes which Djezzar entertained of being ſupported by a body of Naplouſians and Mangrabins, who were to aſſemble at Damaſcus, induced him to make ſeveral vigorous ſallies, in which, however, he was beat back with conſiderable loſs. Bonaparte had not yet received the heavy artillery for which he had ſent to Damietta, to replace that which had been captured by the Engliſh.

Engliſh. A few pieces only, and a part of the ſtores, had been landed at Jaffa, but had not yet reached him.

He endeavoured a ſecond time to open a breach in the ſame tower, which the Turks had filled with wood, bales of cotton, and bags of ſand: the tower was ſet on fire, but all attempts to reach it were vain.

On the 8th of April, Sir Sidney Smith, in co-operation with Djezzar, made a conſiderable ſally with three columns, at the head of which were the Britiſh marines. The deſign of this daring ſortie was to deſtroy the works neareſt the place, and chiefly the mine which led under the counterſcarp; this hazardous attack was entruſted to the brave Captain Aldfield, who had ſignalized himſelf at the taking of the Cape of Good Hope. He broke the head of the column of the centre of the French troops, and threw himſelf firſt on the entrance of the mine, where he was mortally wounded, and carried off by the French grenadiers. He expired in the arms of the enemy, amidſt the warmeſt teſtimonies of their regret and eſteem, while they mingled their tears with thoſe of his friends for his unfortunate fall. The three columns of the beſiegers were very roughly handled by the fire from the batteries and parallels, and the intermediary ſpace was ſtrewed with their dead.

In this unuſual kind of attack and defence, in which the proximity and nature of the place forced the oppoſing parties to mutual extermination, the Engliſh had the misfortune to behold their colours united to thoſe of Djezzar, the French who were wounded and priſoners, maſſacred (in their brutiſh, barbarous manner) in cold blood by the Turks; no doubt regretting that the ſentiments and conventions of honour, the uſage which, among poliſhed nations, temper and alleviate the rage of war, were ſtrangers to thoſe barbarians. Sir Sidney Smith had generouſly ſoftened the fate of French priſoners at Conſtantinople; and that brave officer muſt have lamented, on that account, the

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minute, but multiplied horrors which were committed under his inſpection at St. John d'Acre.

Till this moment, the poſts of Saffet and Nazareth, under the command of General Junot, had been ſufficient to cover the ſiege; but the aſſembling of the corps of Mamelukes, who had followed Ibrahim Bey into Syria, of the Janiſſaries of Damaſcus, and thoſe of Aleppo, having become very conſiderable, it was found neceſſary to ſend againſt them a corps of obſervation, which was put under the command of General Kleber. The firſt troops of this Turkiſh army, very numerous, eſpecially in cavalry, had already paſſed the river Jordan. Parties of Arabs had ſhown themſelves at the outlets of the mountain of Naploufium. General Junot turned the mountain to reach them, with his light infantry, a few companies of grenadiers, and 150 horſe; but he found himſelf ſurrounded and attacked by nearly 3,000 horſe, and made his retreat towards Kaff-Cana, two leagues from the field of battle, in good order, having roughly treated this cavalry, which had not been able to force him.

General Kleber left the camp of St. John d'Acre, with the remainder of his diviſion, to join General Junot at Nazareth; and he directed his march towards the heights of Louby (on the 11th of April) and had reached Sed-Jarra, at four miles diſtance from Cana; when 4,000 Turkiſh and Arabian cavalry, ſupported by 4 or 500 foot, deſcending from the heights, ſurrounded the French, and were ſeemingly eager to charge them. General Kleber attacked the village of Sed-Jarra, and routed the Turkiſh cavalry, which fled acroſs the river Jordan. A few days after, the whole of the army deſtined to force the lines of the French, and relieve St. John d'Acre, having croſſed the Jordan, at the bridge of Jacob, and Giz-al-Mecanic, formed its junction in the plain of Fouli, the ancient Eſdrelon, celebrated in modern hiſtory for the many fierce and bloody combats fought round its walls, between the Iracens and Chriſtians. At the ſame time, the caſtle

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of Soffat was warmly attacked, and ſcaled, but vigorouſly defended by the French captain Simon. Kleber, after having reconnoitered the different corps of troops by which he was almoſt ſurrounded, eſtimated their real force at no leſs than 40,000 men, compriſing the natives. He thought it his duty to give information of this mighty force, to the commander in chief; and alſo, of the movement which he propoſed to make; and this ſtratagem was, to turn the main of this army, and ſurpriſe their camp.

Bonaparte, finding himſelf thus haraſſed and interrupted in his plans, by a kind of attack, favourable to the larger number, reſolved, with whatever force he could draw off from his army before St. John d'Acre, to reach this multitude, and give them battle. His firſt care was to cut off from the Turks their retreat acroſs the bridge of Jacob, in order to diſperſe them and drive them far beyond Jordan. General Murat was charged with 1,000 infantry, and one regiment of cavalry to undertake this hardy enterpriſe.

Leaving the camp of St. John d'Acre (13th of April) he made forced marches towards Jacob's bridge. Only two diviſions were left to carry on the ſiege, and keep the trenches. Bonaparte, with the reſt of his cavalry, the diviſion of Bon, and eight pieces of artillery, came (16th of April) within ſight of the plain of Eſdrelon, and Mount Tabor. Kleber, retarded by the difficulty of the roads, and by the defiles, could not reach and ſurpriſe, before day-break the camp of the Mamelukes, who, warned by their advanced poſts of the approach of the French, had marched forward as far as the village of Fouli. The columns of Generals Rampan and Vial, cut off their retreat towards the mountains of Naplouſium. Murat had alſo juſt ſurpriſed the poſt of Jacob's bridge, and raiſed the blockade of the caſtle of Saffet. The route of the Turks, Arabians, Mamelukes and Naplouſians, was complete:—cut off from their camp, they threw themſelves behind Mount Tabor, and gaining, during the night, the bridge of Giz-al-Mecanic

nic, repaſſed the Jordan with conſiderable loſs, and in the greateſt diſorder, and retreated towards Damaſcus.

General Kleber took poſſeſſion of the bridges of Jacob and Giz-al-Mecanic, the forts of Saffet and Tabari; and, after having ſecured the banks of the Jordan, he occupied, with his diviſion, the poſition of the baizard of Nazareth. Bonaparte returned to the camp with the remainder of the troops, and preſſed on the works. The mine, deſtined to blow up the town, was finiſhed, and ſet fire to; but a part of the effect having vented itſelf by ſome ſubterraneous paſſage, one ſide only of the tower was ſprung, and the breach was not more practicable than before. Never was fortune ſo favourable to the beſieged; never were a few yards of ground of ſo much importance in the reciprocal attacks and defence of a place; and never was the rubbiſh of a bad work diſputed with ſo much eagerneſs. It is not on plans and deſigns, but on profiles of this ruined tower, that theſe attacks can be repreſented,—thoſe feats of arms, not leſs extraordinary from the well-known valour of the combatants, than ſingular from the diſpoſitions of the place.

The mine was ſcarcely ſprung, than Bonaparte was anxious, while the impreſſion of the firſt terror continued to operate, to know how the town was connected with the reſt of the place. Thirty grenadiers ſucceeded in lodging themſelves in the rubbiſh under the ceiling of the firſt ſtory; but the beſieged having communications with the ruins of the upper ſtories, threw inflammable matter into that below, which forced the French grenadiers to abandon it. The next day, the batteries continued demoliſhing the town, and during the night, the French miners tried anew to get poſſeſſion of the tower. Once more they were forced to evacuate it, overpowered by the fire and combuſtible materials, which the Turks, whom they had not yet completely diſlodged from the higher ſtories, continued to rain upon them. It was the thirty-eight day of the opening of the trenches, and the French had not received

ceived any battering artillery; at length three pieces of twenty-four pounds, brought to Jaffa by the frigates under Vice-admiral Perrée, and ſix pieces of eighteen pounds, ſent from Damietta, reached St. John d'Acre, and were, a few days after, planted on the batteries, in order to continue the levelling of the tower. At this period, the French met with a conſiderable loſs in the death of the ſkilful General Caffarelli, who died of a wound he had received in the trench.

The beſieged, almoſt the whole of whoſe pieces in front of the attack were diſmounted, opened new batteries, and began forming exterior works. This moſt ſkilful counter-attack was conducted under the engineer Colonel Philippeaux; but he too periſhed in this deſtructive ſiege.

The works were puſhed on with unremitting ardour, both by the beſiegers and the beſieged; and were ſupported alternately by new aſſaults and new ſallies. But the French had not artillery enough to ſilence the fire, and make a lodgment in the works; to complete their misfortunes, their ammunition began almoſt totally to fail. The courage and activity of the beſieged encreaſed in proportion as the fire of the beſiegers ſlackened. A new mine, deſtined to blow up the counterſcarp, oppoſite the ſecond breach, which they had begun to make under the courtine on the eaſtern ſide, failed; the chaffies were demoliſhed, and the well filled up. Bonaparte ſtill perſiſted to open a paſſage by the breach of the half-ruined tower; every thing was carried on with ardour; the French got poſſeſſion of the tower, but they could not keep it, and, on the 7th of May, the beſiegers returned to their works.

At this critical moment, a Turkiſh flotilla from Rhodes, under eſcort of a caravello and ſeveral corvettes, having brought conſiderable reinforcements in men and ſtores, Bonaparte determined to make a freſh effort before the landing of this new acceſſion of force to the enemy; he cauſed the attack to be renewed againſt the new works by the 18th and 36th demi-brigades,

gades, under the commands of Generals Bon, Vial, and Rampan. The French had the advantage; the courtine on the right of the tower, battered in breach, having crumbled down, and preſenting a paſſage which ſeemed tolerably practicable, the commander in chief went in perſon to reconnoitre it, and ordered the diviſion of General Lannes to make the attack. The head of the column was led by General Rambeaud; he mounted the breach, and penetrated into the place with 100 grenadiers. The Turks, who ſtill ſtood firm on the ruins of a tower, and ſuch as were in the extenſive works, kept up a very briſk fire of muſketry, filed into the ditch, taking the breach in rear, and ſtopped the eſcalade, and the approach of the columns. Showers of combuſtible matter, the fire from the tops of the houſes, from the barricades, and from the palace of the Pacha, on thoſe French who had deſcended from the breach into the town, either deſtroyed them, or forced them to retreat. The reſerve, formed of the guides of the army, ſprung forward to the breach; but they, after every effort, found it impracticable to renew the combat. The garriſon rallied; the troops brought by the veſſels haſtened their landing to join the beſieged. Brave General Rambeaud was killed on the ſpot. The French, after unavailing prodigies of valour, (as their opponents themſelves confeſſed) were obliged to yield to ſuperior numbers, and to the Turkiſh reſolution which they diſplayed amidſt their ruins, while from their high and inacceſſible walls they poured down inceſſant ſhowers of balls, and other miſſiles, combuſtibles, &c. upon the French, naked and expoſed.

In conſequence of thoſe multiplied and irreparable loſſes, it was found almoſt impoſſible to reduce a place defended with ſo much deſperate courage, continually proviſioned and ſupported on the ſide of the ſea, protected by Sir Sidney Smith's ſquadron, who, being himſelf under no fear of an attack, could diſpoſe of his crews, of his artillery, of his ſtores; in ſhort, of every reſource which

which veſſels well provided could furniſh to a beſieged place, and preciſely ſuch as the beſieged were moſt in want of; and it may be ſaid, without exaggeration, that from the arrival of the Turkiſh flotilla, and the ſuccours which had come in from different directions on the coaſt, the forces, and eſpecially the means, of the beſieged were become ſuperior to thoſe of the beſiegers, in the inverſe ratio (as the Journaliſts of thoſe times expreſs it) of the proportion determined by the principles of the art in carrying on ſieges.

Galling and mortifying as this reverſe of circumſtances muſt have been to the high and intrepid mind of Bonaparte, accuſtomed to conquer, and whom his troops believed invincible; yet a regard for the lives of his brave followers, we would readily have ſuppoſed, would have induced him to yield to obſtacles apparently inſurmountable; yet that reſolute Captain could not reſolve with himſelf to renounce this conqueſt, which fortune, for once, faithleſs, tore from him. With eager attention, he beheld the place open, the breach wider, and rendered more eaſy by the laſt efforts of his too weak artillery; he was, therefore anxious to try once more the chance of arms, and, in perſon, marched at two in the morning to the foot of the breach (10th of May) which was boldly mounted by the grenadiers of the 75th and 19th demi-brigades; and the carbineers of the 2d of light-infantry. His deſign, in this attempt, was to ſurpriſe the Turks, and to eſtabliſh himſelf in force in the breach. General Verdier marched at the head of the grenadiers; the firſt Turkiſh poſts were killed on the ſpot; but the garriſon held firm behind the new entrenchments, which checked this impetuous attack, and once more compelled the French to retreat. Still, however, they renewed it, the ſame evening, and the grenadiers of the 25th demi-brigade, which had been detached from the corps of obſervation, having volunteered themſelves to mount to the aſſault, the combat commenced afreſh, on the breach, with deſperate and redoubled fury. The beſieged,

ſieged, warned of this laſt attack, had reinforced a ſecond and third line of artillery, which the French grenadiers could not force.

In theſe three furious aſſaults, the loſs on each ſide was very conſiderable; but that of the French, truly heavy, on this day. Adjutant-general Fouler, Venoux, chief of brigade, and General Bon, fell in the ſeveral actions; and a great number of field officers were dangerouſly wounded.

This laſt attack, which appears to have been an impulſe of pride, rather than the reſult of wiſe combination in Bonaparte, is, in the opinion of military men, cenſurable in a high degree;—it is alſo ſaid to have been attended with diſagreeable effects on the minds of the army, and excited a very ſerious degree of diſcontent among the ſurviving officers and ſoldiers, who, ardent in following their General through ſo many perilous enterpriſes, were indignant at ſo uſeleſs a waſte of life, when the object, by inceſſant reinforcements, was thereby become more and more unattainable. Decided at length to raiſe the ſiege, Bonaparte firſt ordered his ſick and wounded to be ſent off. To keep the beſieged in check, he made uſe of the remains of his ammunition, and redoubled the fire of his cannon and mortars. Djezzar, having remarked thoſe firſt diſpoſitions for a retreat, made frequent ſallies, which were repulſed with vigour. The aſpect of the field of carnage was horrible; the ditches and reverſes of the parapets were filled with corpſes, the air was infected with the effluvia from ſo many putrid carcaſes of ſlain ſoldiers—while, according to the ſavage diſpoſition of the Turks, the propoſition for a ſuſpenſion of arms to bury the dead, was by theſe barbarians refuſed!

Such was the ſiege and defence of St. John d'Acre, in which probably as many gallant men periſhed, as ſeveral centuries before, there fell of Saracens and Chriſtians, before its fortifications.

Bonaparte addreſſed a proclamation to his army, in which he announced the raiſing of the ſiege, and reſolved

ſolved to return to Egypt, to defend its approach, in the ſeaſon of landing, againſt the forces aſſembled at Rhodes, a part of which had been ſent to the relief of St. John d'Acre. The raiſing of the ſiege was executed in good order; the fire againſt the place was kept up to the laſt moment; and the very day on which the army began its march, being the 61ſt day after breaking ground, General Le Grange, who commanded, repulſed two ſallies, and drove the Turks back into the town. General Lannes' diviſion led the march, taking the road of Cantoura, and was followed by the baggage of the army by the park and diviſion of General Bon. Regnier's diviſion evacuated the trenches. Kleber formed a ſtrong rear-guard with his diviſions and cavalry, whilſt General Junot covered the left flank; the bridges on the river were deſtroyed, and the columns were not moleſted by the enemy. Bonaparte threw into the ſea the pieces of artillery which he could not carry back through the deſert, burnt the carriages at Cantoura; and availed himſelf of all the means which were left him, to tranſport to Jaffa his field-pieces, and the ſick and wounded of his army.

This convoy ſailed from Jaffa a few days after for Damietta, but fell into the hands of the Engliſh commodore, who, as ſoon as he had knowledge of the retreat, ſent in chaſe of the three French frigates, while his ſquadron hovered along the coaſt, to haraſs the march of the French army.

The Turkiſh commander, Djezzar, did not perceive till day-break (May 22d) that the trenches, which had been ſilent during the night, were evacuated: the Turks took poſſeſſion of the works, and following at a wary diſtance the traces of the army, found only a few pieces of artillery buried in the ſand. The French army continued its march in the ſame order, ravaging, and laying waſte the country, burning the harveſts, deſtroying the defences of the ports, the magazines, and all the reſources which the Turks could have made uſe of to approach the frontiers of Egypt. Kleber formed

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the rearguard with his diviſion, which after having croſſed the deſert, embarked at Tinch for Damietta. Bonaparte left a ſtrong garriſon at Cathich, and entered Cairo, with the reſt of his army, twenty-ſix days after the raiſing of the ſiege.

Such is the moſt impartial and diſintereſted account of this bloody tranſaction, at the ſiege of St. John d'Acre, which we could procure from the beſt informed journaliſts, who have given a very copious and diſtinct narration of the procedure of the hoſtile parties engaged in this affair. We ſhall now lay before our readers the official account of it as publiſhed by the authority of the Britiſh cabinet.

Admiralty-Office, September 10th, 1799.

A letter from Captain Sir Sidney Smith, of his Majeſty's ſhip Tigre, to Evan Nepean, Eſq. with its incloſures, of which the following are copies, were received yeſterday at this office.

Copy of a letter from Captain Sir Sidney Smith, dated off Mount Lebanon, June 16th, 1799.

Sir Morton Eden has forwarded a duplicate of your letter of the 4th of May, informing me of the ſailing of the French fleet from Breſt, not knowing that Bonaparte's expedition to Syria has completely failed, as the incloſed duplicates will inform their Lordſhips.

Tigre, Acre, May 9th.

My Lord,

I had the honour to inform your Lordſhip, by my letter of the 2d inſtant, that we were buſily employed completing two ravelines, for cannon to flank the enemy's neareſt approaches, diſtant only ten yards from them. They were attacked that very night, and almoſt every night ſince, and have been repulſed with very conſiderable loſs: the enemy continued to batter in breach with progreſſive ſucceſs, and have nine ſeveral times attempted to ſtorm, but have as often been beat back with

with immenſe ſlaughter. Our beſt mode of defence has been frequent ſorties to keep them on the defenſive, and impede the progreſs of their covering works.

We have thus been in one continued buſtle ever ſince the beginning of the ſiege, interrupted only at ſhort intervals by the exceſſive fatigue of every individual, on both ſides. We have been long anxiouſly looking for a reinforcement, without which we could not expect to keep the place ſo long as we have. The delay in its arrival being occaſioned by Haſſan Bey's having originally received orders to join me in Egypt, I was obliged to be very peremptory in the repetition of my orders for him to join me here. It was not, however, till the evening of the day before yeſterday, the fifty-firſt day of the ſiege, that his fleet of corvettes and tranſports made its appearance.

The approach of this additional ſtrength was the ſignal to Bonaparte for a moſt vigorous and perſevering aſſault, in hopes to get poſſeſſion of the town, before the reinforcement to the garriſon could diſembark. The conſtant fire of the beſiegers was ſuddenly encreaſed tenfold; our flanking fire from a float was, as uſual, plied to the utmoſt, but with leſs effect than heretofore, as the enemy had thrown up epaulments and traverſes of ſufficient thickneſs to protect him from it. The guns that could be worked to the greateſt advantage were a French braſs eighteen-pounder, in a light-houſe caſtle, manned from the Theſeus, under the direction of Mr. Scroder, maſter's mate, and the laſt mounted twenty-four-pounder, in the north ravelin, manned from the Tigre, under the direction of Mr. Jones, midſhipman. Theſe guns being within grape diſtance of the head of the attacking column, added to the Turkiſh muſketry, did great execution.

The Tigre's two ſixty-eight pound carronades, mounted in two germes lying in the mole, and worked under the direction of Mr. Bray, carpenter of the Tigre (one of the braveſt and moſt intelligent men I ever ſerved with), threw ſhells into the centre of this column, with

with evident effect, and checked it conſiderably. Still, however, the enemy gained ground, and made a lodgment in the ſecond ſtory of the north-eaſt tower, the upper part being entirely battered down, and the ruins in the ditch forming the aſcent by which they mounted. Day-light ſhowed us the French ſtandard on the outer angle of the tower. The fire of the beſieged was much ſlackened in compariſon to that of the beſiegers, and our flanking fire was become of leſs effect, the enemy having covered themſelves in this lodgment, and the approach to it, by two traverſes acroſs the ditch, which they had conſtructed under the fire that had been oppoſed to them during the whole night, and which were now ſeen compoſed of ſand-bags, and the bodies of their dead built in with them, their bayonets only being viſible above them. Haſſan Bey's troops were in the boats, though as yet but half-way on ſhore. This was a moſt critical point of the conteſt; and an effort was neceſſary to preſerve the place for a ſhort time till their arrival. I accordingly landed the boats at the mole, and took the crews up to the beach armed with pikes. The enthuſiaſtic gratitude of the Turks, men, women, and children, at ſight of ſuch a reinforcement, at ſuch a time, is not to be deſcribed: many fugitives returned with us to the breach, which we found defended by a few brave Turks, whoſe moſt deſtructive miſſile weapons were heavy ſtones, which ſtriking the aſſailants on the head, overthrew the foremoſt down the ſlope, and impeded the progreſs of the reſt. A ſucceſſion, however, aſcended to the aſſault, the heaps of ruins between the parties ſerving as a breaſt-work for both, the muzzels of their muſkets touching, and the ſpear-heads of the ſtandards locked.

Gezzar Pacha hearing that the Engliſh were on the breach, quitted his ſtation, where, according to the ancient Turkiſh cuſtom, he was ſitting to reward ſuch as ſhould bring him the heads of the enemy, and diſtributing muſket-cartridges with his own hands. The energetic old man coming behind us, pulled us down with

with violence, ſaying, if any harm happened to his Engliſh friends, all was loſt. This amicable conteſt, as who ſhould defend the breach, occaſioned a throng of Turks ruſhing to the ſpot, and thus time was gained for the arrival of the firſt body of Haſſan Bey's troops. I had now to combat the Pacha's repugnance to admitting any troops but his Albanians into the garden of his ſeraglio, now become a very important poſt, as occupying the *terre-plein* of the rampart.

There were not above 200 of the original troops, and 1000 of the Albanians left alive. This was no time for debate; and I over-ruled his objections by introducing the Chifflick regiment of 1,000 men, armed with bayonets, diſciplined after the European manner, under Sultan Selim's own eye, and placed by his Imperial Majeſty's expreſs commands at my diſpoſal. The garriſon, animated by the appearance of ſuch a reinforcement, was now all on foot; and there being, of conſequence, enough to defend the breach, I propoſed to the Pacha to get rid of the object of his jealouſy, by opening his gates to let them make a ſally, and take the aſſailants in flank: he readily complied; and I gave directions to the Colonel to get poſſeſſion of the enemy's third parallel or neareſt trench, and there fortify himſelf, by ſhifting the parapet outwards. This order being clearly underſtood, the gates were opened, and the Turks ruſhed out; but they were not equal to ſuch a movement, and were driven back to the town with loſs. Mr. Bray, however, as uſual, protected the town-gate efficaciouſly with grape from the ſixty-eight-pounders. The ſortie had this good effect, that it obliged the enemy to expoſe themſelves above the parapets, ſo that our flanking fire brought down numbers of them, and drew their forces from the breach; ſo that the ſmall number remaining on the lodgment were killed or diſperſed by our few remaining hand-grenades, thrown by Mr. Savage, midſhipman of the Theſeus. The enemy began a new breach, by an inceſſant fire directed to the ſouthward of the lodgment, every ſhot knocking

down whole ſheets of a wall much leſs ſolid than that of the tower, on which they had expended ſo much time and ammunition. The groupe of Generals and aids-du-camp, which the ſhells from the ſixty-eight-pounders had often diſperſed was now re-aſſembled on Richard Cœur de Lion's (Richard I. of England) Mount. Bonaparte was diſtinguiſhable in the centre of a ſemicircle: his geſticulations indicated a renewal of attack, and his diſpatching an aid-du-camp to the camp, ſhowed that he waited only for a reinforcement. I gave orders for Haſſan Bey's ſhips to take their ſtations in the ſhoal water to the ſouthward, and made the Tigre's ſignal to weigh and join the Theſeus to the northward. A little before ſun-ſet, a maſſive column appeared advancing to the breach with a ſolemn ſtep. The Pacha's idea was, not to defend the brink this time, but rather to ſuffer a certain number of the enemy to enter, and then cloſe with them according to the Turkiſh mode of war.

This plan was agreed upon; and the column mounted the breach unmoleſted, and deſcended from the rampart into the Pacha's garden, where in a very few minutes the braveſt and moſt advanced amongſt them lay headleſs corpſes; the ſabre, with the addition of a dagger in the other hand, proving more than a match for the bayonet itſelf: the reſt precipitately retreated; and the commanding officer, who was ſeen manfully encouraging his men to mount the breach, and whom we have ſince learnt to be General Lannes, was carried off by his men, being wounded by a muſket-ſhot: General Rambeaud was killed on the ſpot. Such confuſion aroſe in the town from the actual entry of the enemy, it having been impoſſible, nay impolitic, to give previous information to any body of the mode of defence adopted, leſt the enemy ſhould come to a knowledge of it by their numerous emiſſaries. The Engliſh uniform, which had hitherto ſerved as a rallying point for the whole garriſon wherever it appeared, was now, in the duſk, miſtaken for the French; the newly-

arrived

arrived Turks not diſtinguiſhing between one hat and another in the crowd, and thus many a ſevere blow of a ſabre was parried by our officers, among whom Colonel Douglas, Mr. Ives, and Mr. Jones, had nigh loſt their lives as they were forcing their way through a crowd of the flying enemy. Calm, however, was reſtored by the Pacha's exertions, aided by Mr. Trotte, juſt arrived with Haſſan Bey; and thus the conteſt of twenty-five hours ended, both parties being ſo fatigued as to be unable to move.

Bonaparte will, no doubt, renew the attack, the breach being, as above deſcribed, perfectly practicable for fifty men a-breaſt; indeed the town is not, nor ever has been defenſible according to the rules of art; but according to every other rule, it muſt, and ſhall be, defended; but we are convinced that it is by this breach that the enemy means to march to farther conqueſts. It is on the iſſue of this local conflict that depends the opinion of the multitude of ſpectators on the ſurrounding hills, who wait only to ſee how it ends, to join the ſucceſsful party; and, with ſuch a reinforcement, for the execution of Bonaparte's known projects, Conſtantinople, and even Vienna, muſt feel the ſhock.

Be aſſured, my Lord, the magnitude of our obligations does not decreaſe the energy of our efforts in the attempt to diſcharge our duty; and though we may, and probably ſhall, be overpowered, I can venture to ſay, that the French army will be ſo much farther weakened, before it prevails, as to be little able to profit by its dear-bought victory.

W. S. SMITH.

Rear-admiral Lord Nelſon.

Tigre, off Jaffa, May 30th.

My Lord,

The providence of Almighty God has been wonderfully manifeſted in the defeat and precipitate retreat of the French army, the means we had in oppoſing its giganti-

gigantic efforts againſt us being totally inadequate of themſelves to the production of ſuch a reſult. The meaſure of their iniquities ſeems to have been filled by the maſſacre of the Turkiſh priſoners at Jaffa, in cool blood, three days after their capture: and the plain of Nazareth has been the boundary of Bonaparte's extraordinary career.

He raiſed the ſiege of Acre on the 20th of May, leaving all his heavy artillery behind him, either buried in the ſand, or thrown into the ſea; where, however, it is viſible, and can eaſily be weighed. The circumſtances which led to this event, ſubſequent to my laſt diſpatch of the 9th inſtant, are as follow:—Conceiving that the ideas of the Syrians, as to the ſuppoſed irreſiſtible proweſs of theſe invaders, muſt be changed, ſince they had witneſſed the checks which the beſieging army daily met with in their operations before the town of Acre, I wrote a circular letter to the Princes and Chiefs of the Chriſtians of Mount Lebanon, and alſo to the Sheiks of the Druſes, recalling them to a ſenſe of their duty, and engaging them to cut off the ſupplies from the French camp. I ſent them, at the ſame time, a copy of Bonaparte's impious proclamation, in which he boaſts of having overthrown all Chriſtian eſtabliſhments, accompanied with a ſuitable exhortation, calling upon them to chooſe between the friendſhip of *a Chriſtian knight*, and that of *an unprincipled renegado!* This letter had all the effect I could deſire. They immediately ſent me two ambaſſadors, profeſſing not only friendſhip, but obedience; aſſuring me, that in proof of the latter, they had ſent out parties to arreſt ſuch of the mountaineers as ſhould be found carrying wine or gunpowder to the French camp, and placing eighty priſoners at my diſpoſal. I had thus the ſatisfaction to find Bonaparte's career farther northward effectually ſtopped by a warlike people, inhabiting an impenetrable country.

General Kleber's diviſion had been ſent eaſtward, towards the fords of the Jordan, to oppoſe the approach

of

of the Damaſcus army; it was recalled from thence to take its turn in the daily efforts to mount the breach at Acre, in which every other diviſion had failed, with the loſs of their braveſt men, and above three-fourths of their officers. It ſeems much was expected from Kleber's diviſion, as it had, by its firmneſs, and the ſteady front it preſented in the form of a hollow ſquare, kept upwards of 10,000 men in check, during a whole day, in the plain between Nazareth and Mount Tabor, till Bonaparte arrived with his horſe-artillery, and extricated thoſe troops, diſperſing the multitude of irregular cavalry, by which they were completely ſurrounded. The Turkiſh Chifflick regiment, having been cenſured for the ill ſucceſs of their ſally, and their unſteadineſs in the attack in the garden, made a freſh ſally the next night, Soliman Aga, the Lieutenant-colonel, being determined to retrieve the honour of the regiment, by the punctual execution of the orders I had given him, to make himſelf maſter of the enemy's third parallel; —and this he moſt effectually accompliſhed; but the impetuoſity of a few, carried them on to the ſecond trench, where they loſt ſome of their ſtandards, though they ſpiked four guns before their retreat.

Kleber's diviſion inſtead of mounting the breach, according to Bonaparte's intention, was thus obliged to waſte its time and ſtrength in recovering thoſe works; in which, indeed, it ſucceeded, after a bloody conflict of three hours, leaving every thing in *ſtatu quo*, except the loſs of men, which was very conſiderable on both ſides. After this failure, the French grenadiers abſolutely refuſed to mount the breach any more over the putrid bodies of their unburied companions, ſacrificed in former attacks by Bonaparte's impatience and precipitation. He ſeemed to have no principle of action but that of preſſing forward, and appeared to ſtick at nothing to obtain the object of his ambition, although it muſt be evident to every perſon elſe, that even if he ſucceeded to take the town, he muſt in a ſhort time after be expelled from it by the fire of our ſhips of war:

war: however, the knowledge which the garriſon had of the inhuman maſſacre at Jaffa, rendered them deſperate from a principle of ſelf-defence. Two attempts to aſſaſſinate me in the town having failed, recourſe was had to a moſt flagrant breach of every law of honour and of war. A flag of truce was ſent into the town by the hand of an Arab derviſe, with a letter to the Pacha, propoſing a ceſſation of arms for the purpoſe of burying the dead bodies, the ſtench from which became intolerable, and threatened the exiſtence of every one of us on both ſides, many having died raving mad, within a few hours after having been ſeized with the firſt ſymptoms of the infection. It was natural that we ſhould gladly liſten to this propoſition, and that we ſhould conſequently be off our guard during the conference.

While the anſwer was under conſideration, a volley of ſhot and ſhells on a ſudden, announced an aſſault, which, however, the garriſon was ready to receive, and the aſſailants only contributed to encreaſe the number of the dead bodies in queſtion, to the eternal diſgrace of the General who thus ſacrificed them with ſo much diſloyalty. I ſaved the life of the Arab from the effects of the indignation of the Turks, and took him with me on board the Tigre, from whence I ſent him back to the General with a meſſage which made the army aſhamed of having been expoſed by ſuch a merited reproof.

Subordination was now at an end, and all hopes of ſucceſs having vaniſhed, the enemy had no alternative left but a precipitate retreat, which was put in execution in the night between the 20th and 21ſt inſtant. I had ſaid above, that the battering train of artillery (except the carriages which were burnt) is now in our hands, amounting to twenty-three pieces. The howitzers, and medium twelve-pounders, originally conveyed by land with much difficulty and ſucceſsfully employed to make the firſt breach, were embarked in the country veſſels at Jaffa, to be conveyed coaſtwiſe, together

together with the worſt among the 2,000 wounded, which embarraſſed the march of the army. This operation was to be expected. I took care, therefore, to be between Jaffa and Damietta, before the French army could reach the former place. The veſſels being hurried to ſea, without ſeamen to navigate them, and the wounded being in want of every neceſſary, even water and proviſions, they ſteered ſtraight to his Majeſty's ſhips, in full confidence of receiving the ſuccours of humanity, in which they were not diſappointed. I have ſent them on to Damietta, where they will receive ſuch further aid as their ſituation loudly calls for, and which it was out of my power to afford to ſuch a number. Their expreſſions of gratitude to us were mingled with execrations on the name of their General, who had, as they ſaid, thus expoſed them to peril, rather then fairly and honourably renew the intercourſe with the Engliſh, which he had broken by a falſe and malicious aſſertion, viz. that I had intentionally expoſed the former priſoners to the infection of the plague. To the honour of the French army be it ſaid, this aſſertion was not believed by them, and it thus recoiled on its author.

The utmoſt diſorder has been manifeſted in the retreat of Bonaparte's army, and the whole track between Acre and Gaza is ſtrewed with the dead bodies of thoſe who have ſunk under fatigue, or the effect of ſlight wounds, ſuch as could walk, unfortunately for them, not having been embarked. Our rowing gun-boats annoyed the van-columns of the retreating army in its march along the beach, while the Arabs harraſſed its rear, when it turned inland to avoid their fire. We perceived the ſmoke of muſquetry behind the ſand-hills, from the attack of a party of them which came down to our boats, and touched our flags with every token of union and reſpect. Iſrael Paſha, governor of Jeruſalem, to whom notice was ſent of Bonaparte's preparation for a retreat, having entered the town by land, at the ſame time that we brought our guns to bear on it by ſea,

ſea, a ſtop was put to the pillage and maſſacre already begun by the Napluſians. The Engliſh flag, re-hoiſted on the conſul's houſe (under which the Pacha met me) ſerves as an aſylum for all religions, and every deſcription of the ſurviving inhabitants. The heaps of unburied Frenchmen, lying on the bodies of thoſe whom they had maſſacred two months ago, afforded another proof of divine juſtice, which cauſed thoſe murderers to periſh by the infection ariſing from their own atrocious act. Seven poor wretches are left alive in the hoſpital, where they are protected, and ſhall be taken care of. We have had a moſt dangerous and painful duty in diſembarking here to protect the inhabitants, but, however, it has been effectually done; and Iſrael Pacha deſerves every credit for his humane exertions, and cordial co-operations to that effect. Two thouſand cavalry are juſt diſpatched to haraſs the French rear, and I am in hopes to overtake their van in time to profit by their diſorder; but this will depend on the aſſembling of ſufficient force, and on exertions of which I am not abſolutely maſter, though I do my utmoſt to give the neceſſary impulſe, and a right direction. I have every confidence, that the officers and men under my orders belonging to the three ſhips, who, in the face of a moſt formidable enemy, have fortified a town that had not a ſingle heavy gun mounted on the land ſide, and who had carried on all intercourſe by boats under a conſtant fire of muſquetry and grape, will be able efficaciouſly to aſſiſt the army in its future operations. This letter will be delivered to your lordſhip by Lieutenant Canes, firſt of the Tigre, whom I have judged worthy to command the Theſeus, as Captain, ever ſince the death of my much lamented friend and coadjutor, Captain Miller. I have taken Lieutenant England firſt of that ſhip to my aſſiſtance in the Tigre, by whoſe exertions, and thoſe of Lieutenant Sommers, and Mr. Atkinſon, together with the bravery of the reſt of the officers and men, that ſhip was ſaved, though on fire at five ſeveral

ral places at once, from a depoſit of French ſhells burſting on board of her.

W. S. Smith.

A liſt of killed, wounded, drowned, and priſoners, belonging to his Majeſty's ſhips employed in the defence of Acre, between March 17th and May 20th.

Fifty-three killed, 113 wounded, thirteen drowned, and eighty-two priſoners.

W. S. Smith.

A return of killed, wounded, and drowned, belonging to his Majeſty's ſhips Tigre and Theſeus employed in the defence of Acre.

One killed, ſeven wounded, and four drowned.

W. S. Smith.

A return of killed, wounded, and drowned, belonging to his Majeſty's ſhips Tigre and Theſeus, between the 9th and 20th of May, employed in the defence of Acre.

One Captain, one ſchoolmaſter, three midſhipmen, twenty-two ſeamen, one boy, and three marines, killed: two lieutenants, one maſter, one ſurgeon, one chaplain, one midſhipman, thirty ſeamen, two boys, two ſergeants of marines, and ſeven private marines, wounded: ſix ſeamen, and three private marines, drowned.

W. S. Smith.

His Majeſty's ſhip Tigre, May 30th.

Thus terminated the memorable campaign in Syria, where torrents of blood were ſhed, and where both parties boaſted (probably with juſtice) of the valour and proweſs of their men; yet alas! neither had much to boaſt of the real advantage gained by either party. From the official diſpatches of Sir Sidney Smith, which ſeem wrote with a ſpirit of candour, it appears that Bonaparte purſued the ſiege of Acre with a criminal

obſtinacy; juſtly noticing, that although that great commander could have made himſelf maſter of the town, the Britiſh ſhipping could eaſily have deſtroyed, and buried him and his brave followers in its ruins. So that Sir Sidney properly obſerves, that this pertinacity of Bonaparte in attempting to ſtorm the place by eleven ſucceſſive aſſaults, in each of which his gallant men were mown down with ſhowers of ſhot, while it indicated an invincible degree of pride and ſelf-confidence, reſpecting himſelf, was cruelly diſaſtrous to the flower of his army.

But notwithſtanding the ill ſucceſs of the ſiege of St. John d'Acre, the loſs in battle and in ſickneſs of near a quarter of his troops, and that of a great number of diſtinguiſhed officers, Bonaparte was ſatisfied that he had fulfilled the principal object of his expedition. He had at leaſt deſtroyed or diſperſed the greateſt part of the forces of the Pacha, and had ſtruck terror into all his ſubjects and allies; he had prevented the junction of the Grand Vizier, and the aſſembling of an army whoſe progreſs towards the eaſtern frontiers of Egypt might have formed a diverſion very injurious to the defence of the mouths of the Nile, againſt the army about to land;—in ſhort, he had weakened this army, and retarded its operations during the ſeaſon moſt favourable for its march.

The projects of Bonaparte had excited lively ſenſations in Europe; and alarming apprehenſions were entertained reſpecting the views he might have formed of penetrating into the peninſula of India; as they did not ſuppoſe that his ambition would limit its ſchemes to the acquiſition of a permanent military colony in Egypt; and, as his idea of conqueſt ſeemed to have neither terms nor meaſure, ſcarcely had a corps of 10,000 French croſſed the deſart which ſeparates Aſia from Africa, than every eye was turned towards the capital of the Ottoman empire, conjecturing, that Conſtantinople muſt become an enriching and eaſy conqueſt to his victorious troops. It had thus been idly imagined,

imagined, that abandoning Egypt, ſcarcely ſubdued, and threatened by ſuperior forces, by the fatal battle of Aboukir having no marine, that Bonaparte, in league with the Druſes and Mangrabins, would give himſelf up to the alliance of theſe demi-barbarians, and, confiding to them his communications by Syria and Karamania, would croſs Aſia Minor, and come to the extremity of the peninſula of Scutari, to honour the Grand Signior, in his ſeraglio, with a ſummons to ſurrender his capital into his hands.

It was by abſurdities, ſuch as theſe, that a relative influence, ſo extenſive, was given to the preſervation of Acre, that grave aſſurances were given from high authorities, that Conſtantinople and the exiſtence of the Ottoman empire had been ſaved, becauſe Bonaparte had failed in making himſelf maſter of this petty fortreſs on the coaſt of Syria, and from which, as Sir Sidney Smith juſtly obſerves, he could with eaſe have been expelled by the Engliſh ſhipping in a few days, or periſhed in its ruins.

Sir Sidney Smith, purſuing with ardour the execution of the plan of the campaign againſt Egypt, found an encreaſe of zeal and activity on the part of the Ottomans. Seid Muſtapha Pacha aſſembled in the different ports of the iſle of Rhodes, the troops deſtined for the attack of Alexandria; the details of this enterpriſe were put under the direction of European officers; and the combined Engliſh and Turkiſh fleet only waited, in order to ſet ſail for Egypt, the arrival of a convoy, which the Captain Pacha, anchored in the Dardanells, was to diſpatch to Rhodes.

It had not been neglected, in the mean while, to ſtir up the interior of Egypt; they had taken advantage of the abſence of the French general, and of the diminution of the French forces, once more to raiſe the hopes of the fallen party. Several ſymptoms of revolt had manifeſted themſelves in the provinces, parties of the Mamelukes, diſperſed and driven into the weſtern deſerts, had deſcended into the provinces of Lower Egypt, and endeavoured

endeavoured to excite the Arabs; in ſhort, to divide the attention, and give the inſurgents more confidence, the Engliſh had ſent a few ſhips of war up the Red Sea; a ſhip of the line and a frigate approached Suez; but finding this port in a ſtate of defence, Admiral Blanket contented himſelf in leaving a brig to cruize before it.

During the abſence of Bonaparte in Syria, and before his return into the ſtrong places of Lower Egypt, General Duga, commander of Cairo, had detached General Lanuff, and the chiefs of brigade, Duranteau and D'Eſtrees, againſt different hordes of Arabs, whom they ſurpriſed and beat in different rencounters. Acts of rigour were exerciſed, and villages were burnt, to ſtifle the ſedition; but the preſence of Bonaparte completely reſtored order. He applied himſelf chiefly to repair the loſſes ſuſtained by the four diviſions and the cavalry which had marched with him into Syria; he completed the different corps, and ſo well re-eſtabliſhed organization, that within three weeks after the return of theſe troops to their quarters, inſtead of being buried in the ſands of the deſert, as had been publiſhed by authority, they were in a ſtate to march and undertake new operations.

The movements made by the Mamelukes and the Arabs gave intimations of the projects of the allies, and the approach of their fleet. General Deſaix, it has been obſerved, was charged with the expulſion of the Mamelukes from Upper Egypt. From the cloſe of the year to the time of the expedition into Syria, the French troops had been almoſt in continual action. The Mamelukes had diſputed almoſt every poſition, and were uniformly defeated, and driven beyond Coſſeire, a poſt of great importance, the gaining of which crowned the ſucceſs of an expedition, more extraordinary from the nature of the country, and the enemy they had to combat, than any other that occurred in the vaſt theatre in which the French were engaged. Deſaix was preparing for an expedition into the Oaſis, when

when he was informed that the Mamelukes had rallied, and formed themſelves into two diviſions; a part paſſing by the Oaſis of Sababiar, were endeavouring to form a junction with Ibrahim Bey, who had juſt made his appearance at Gaza; and the others, under the orders of Murad Bey, were deſcending by Fayum and the Natron Lakes, to form a junction with the Arabs. Theſe two corps of Mamelukes did not reach their deſtination; the firſt was ſurpriſed at Sababiar by General Le Grange, who had marched from Cairo (July 10th); their camp, baggage, and 1,700 camels, fell into the hands of the French; the remainder were diſperſed in the deſert.

Murad Bey, having been preceded on the Natron Lakes by General Murat, who, after having diſperſed the bands of Arabs, marched to meet him, retreated towards the pyramids of Gizeh, on the ſide of the deſert.

Bonaparte, informed of this countermarch, and hoping to cut off the retreat of Murad Bey, marched from Cairo (July 14th) with his ſelect troops, his guides, both foot and horſe, and a few companies of grenadiers, where he ordered General Murat to come and join him; he reached the pyramids the ſame day Murad Bey had left them on his retreat to Fayum; he had begun the purſuit, but an affair of a more ſerious kind now engaged his attention; for it was at the pyramids that Bonaparte received advice from Alexandria, that a Turkiſh fleet of 100 ſail had anchored in the Road of Aboukir, which diſpatch was followed by another, ſtating, that a body of 3,000 Turks had landed with artillery on the ſhore of the peninſula, and carried by ſtorm the fort of Aboukir.

At the time this ſecond intelligence reached Bonaparte, he had diſpatched orders to all his Generals to march towards the place of landing, and to thoſe who were guarding poſts to be attentive to ſuppreſs any popular movement, and to watch the Mamelukes and Arabs. The firſt general rendezvous of the army was ordered

ordered at Rhamania, on the left ſide of the Nile. The advanced guard of General Murat, compoſed of detachments from his cavalry, from the grenadiers, and from the infantry which had marched from Gizeh, a part of the diviſion of Lannes, and a part of that of Rampan, who had orders to paſs the Nile, the moveable column which General Menou had marched upon the Natron Lakes, the park of artillery, and the ſtaff, formed their junction at Rhamania on the 20th of July.

Upper Egypt was occupied by Deſaix, who continued the purſuit of Murad Bey, proviſioned the forts of Kene and Coſſeire, and ſent back into Lower Egypt half of his cavalry. He had orders to watch the poſition of Cairo, and to concert his operations with General Dugua, who commanded there, and with General Regnier, who commanded the frontier on the ſide of Syria. The garriſon of El-Ariſch, and other places, were ordered, in caſe of ſuperior force, to retire into the forts, and the Generals, with the reſt of their troops, were to concentrate themſelves in the poſition of Cairo. Bonaparte ordered Kleber to march towards Roſetta with a part of his diviſion; and, as he ſuppoſed that the army which had landed would march towards that place, or to Alexandria, he ſent reinforcements to Roſetta, under the orders of General Menou.

The Turks, after the ſurrender of the fort of Aboukir, had landed their artillery, having poſſeſſion of the peninſula, and had begun to entrench themſelves and form magazines: they had cut the pontoons which formed the communication with Roſetta, between the Lake Madie and the Road Aboukir; their force, which encreaſed every day, was eſtimated at about 15,000 men: ſome Arabs had already joined them, and they appeared to be waiting for ſtill greater reinforcements, and the junction concerted with Murad Bey, in order to inveſt Alexandria.

Bonaparte, in order to be within reach of the movements of Sied Pacha, and intercept the ſuccours of the Arabs and the Mameluke, took poſt at the village of Birket,

Birket, at the point of one of the angles of the Lake Madie (July 23d) and ſeeing that the Turks were thinking only of fortifying and maintaining themſelves in the peninſula, determined to attack them. The army, after having quitted the poſition of Birket, aſſembled at the wells between Alexandria and Aboukir; Bonaparte having tranſported his head-quarters to Alexandria, ſurveyed the new works of this capital, which General Marmot had put in a ſtate of reſpectable defence, and after the reports which he collected reſpecting the poſition of the Turks, he formed his diſpoſition of attack.

Kleber having marched from Damietta, and followed the movement of the army, had reached Foua with a part of his diviſion; General Menou advanced to the extremity of the bar between Roſetta and Aboukir, to the paſſage of the Lake Madie, in order to cannonade ſuch little embarkations as the Turks might ſend into the Lake to harraſs his left.

Muſtapha Pacha defended the entrance of the peninſula by two lines of troops, and by entrenchments, ſtill imperfect. He had placed his firſt line half a league in front of the Fort Aboukir; the right of this line was flanked by the ſea, and by an entrenched mound of ſand, and occupied by about 1,000 men: a village, diſtant about 600 yards from thence, was defended by a corps of 1,000 men and four pieces of cannon. The left of this firſt line was detached and inſulated at the diſtance of 1,200 yards before the centre, and a few gun-boats, drawn up on the inner ſhore, flanked on the left interval between the firſt and ſecond line. This laſt, much more advantageouſly poſted, was 600 yards behind the firſt village. The centre occupied the redoubt, which had been taken from the French at the moment of landing, and which ſince had been connected with the ſea-ſhore, (a ſpace of 300 yards) by an entrenchment, behind which was the right: the left occupied the mounds of ſand, and the internal ſhore, flanked by the gun-boats. Seven thouſand men, and twelve

twelve pieces of cannon defended this ſecond line, which was only 200 yards in front of the village of the Fort, occupied by 1,500 men.—The ſquadron was anchored at a league and a half diſtant in the Road of Aboukir.

The French had received different reinforcements; General Murat had rallied to his advanced guard the column of General D'Eſtaign; he had 600 horſe; and 400 cavaliers, detached from Deſaix's diviſion in Upper Egypt, had joined the army at the poſt of Wells. At day-break (25th of July) the French army, which was only two hours diſtance from the firſt poſts of the Turks, began its march in two columns, preceded by a ſtrong advanced guard.—Lannes' diviſion formed the right wing, that of Lanaſſe the left, and Kleber's diviſion, which was not yet come up, was to form the reſerve; a ſquadron covered the park of artillery; General Devout, with two ſquadrons and 100 dromedaries, watched the Arabs in the rear, and kept up the communication with Alexandria. As ſoon as the armies were in ſight of each other, Bonaparte formed his columns of attack.—General D'Eſtaign carried with the bayonet the entrenched height, which formed the ſupport of the right of the Turks. At the ſame time, Lannes' diviſion marched upon the left of this firſt line. General Murat cut off the retreat of the two wings, which were attacked by detached ſquadrons, and marched right to the centre with the reſt of the cavalry. Almoſt all the firſt line, about 2,000 men, diſlodged and ſurrounded by this manœuvre, periſhed by the French fire, or were drowned: a part of the right fell back on the village, which was attacked and carried. The Turks were purſued to their ſecond poſition, which was leſs extended, and alſo much ſtronger, than the firſt. The redoubt which flanked both the entrenchments of the right, formed the head of this poſition, which the Pacha, who had no other retreat, was prepared to defend with courage, bordering on deſpair, having ſtill 8 or 9,000 men left.

The

The French commander in chief, perceiving that the principal force of the Turks was at the centre, changed his diſpoſition according to the nature of the ground. He detached his cavalry towards the right, to engage, and force the Turks along the ſhore; directed the attacks of the infantry on the entrenchments of their right, between the redoubt and the ſea; and diſpoſed a reſerve to ſtorm the redoubt, at the moment when the attacks by the left wings ſhould have ſucceeded. After briſkly cannonading the redoubt and the entrenchments which connected it with the ſea-ſhore, he began the ſtorm.

General Fugieres, at the head of the 18th demi-brigade, marched a column along the ſhore. The Turks ſeeing the French approach the entrenchments, ſallied out and attacked the column. The combatants fought man to man: the Muſſulmans, however, were repulſed.—The French followed them, and threw themſelves into the entrenchments, but they were ſtopped by the fire from the redoubt, which took them in flank, both above and below. General Fugieres loſt an arm, and the column was forced to fall back to the village. The cavalry, which had come up to the redoubt, had charged ſeveral times with impetuoſity, and drove back the troops before it; but they could not get forwards, nor ſuſtain the heavy fire of the redoubt, and that of the gun-boats. Duvivier, chief of brigade, was killed. Adjutant-general Roize, and the chief of brigade, Beſſieres, renewed the attack. Adjutant-general Letuie put himſelf at the head of the infantry, and ſpringing firſt into the entrenchments, without being followed, was killed. In order to decide the action, Bonaparte ordered General Lannes to march directly to the redoubt, at the head of two battalions;—ſeizing the moment when the Turks ſallied from their entrenchments, he attacked the redoubt by the left, and by the neck; the battalions of the 22d and 69th demi-brigades leaped into the ditch, climbed the parapet and carried the work. Muſtapha Pacha made every effort to rally his men, but

in vain, as they were now forced on every point. General Murat, taking advantage of this firſt moment to charge anew, traverſed the poſitions of the Turks, and, puſhing as far as the ditches of the Fort of Aboukir, completed the confuſion that had taken place in their ranks. The Turks now fled in all directions, and even precipitated themſelves into the ſea: the greater part could not reach the veſſels, which were too diſtant, and the remainder of the army, except the garriſon of Fort Aboukir, and 200 men, ſurrounded and taken with Muſtapha Pacha, periſhed in the waves!

This, however, was a victory attended with conſiderable loſs to the French, who had a great number wounded, among whom was General Murat, Bonaparte's aid-du-camp, and Cretin, chief of brigade; theſe two laſt officers died of their wounds. The fort of Aboukir, ſummoned to ſurrender the day after the battle, was defended with deſperate fury; the Turks had no idea of a capitulation, or any convention, with arms in hand. General Lannes was wounded in a ſally, and General Menou took the command of the ſiege, which was conducted with addreſs and vigour. After eight days of hot bombardment, the battering pieces being eſtabliſhed on the counterſcarp, and the caſtle nothing but a heap of ruins, the ſon of the Pacha, his kyaic, and 2,000 men, threw down their arms, and ſurrendered priſoners of war. The French found in the Fort 300 wounded, and 1,800 killed.

Sir Sidney Smith, arriving at Aboukir, with the laſt ſail of the convoy, was a painful ſpectator of this diſaſtrous defeat of his Turkiſh allies, without having it in his power, as at Acre, to revive, by his meaſures or his activity, the hopes of the Turks. His ſquadron, united to that of Abdul-Fetah Bey, ſerved only to gather up the wrecks of an expedition, from which the Porte had hoped the re-capture of Egypt, and the extermination of what was called the remains of the French army.

Bonaparte

Bonaparte returned to his head quarters, at Alexandria, the day after the battle: he had been informed by certain communications with Engliſh flags of truce, of the firſt reverſes which the armies of the republic had undergone in Italy, and on the Rhine; and of the violent internal commotions which convulſed France itſelf. Theſe painful, though obſcure, intimations determined him to return to Europe, and meditated in ſecret on his intended departure.

The advantage of having haſtened the epocha, by terminating, as he imagined, with a ſingle blow, the military operations in Egypt, during that campaign, was the moſt agreeable trophy of the victory of Aboukir: he conſecrated the memory of the principal officers which had fallen in battle, as well as the ſiege of St. John d'Acre, by annexing their names to different forts repaired, or newly conſtructed for the defence of the town and ports of Alexandria.

On his return to Cairo, he employed himſelf in re-eſtabliſhing the police of the country: the tranquillity which had reigned during the expedition to Aboukir, was ſtated to be a ſufficient pledge of its duration. He neglected nothing to encourage thoſe diſpoſitions in the inhabitants towards the French, by proofs of confidence, and by preſents given to the chiefs of the adminiſtration; he cultivated the affection of the people, by the new attentions to their religious prejudices; and the feſtival of the prophet was celebrated with much pomp, in the preſence of Muſtapha Pacha, and the Turkiſh officers who had been made priſoners with him at Aboukir.

Two commiſſions of artiſts left Cairo (15th Auguſt) with a ſtrong eſcort, to go and explore the monuments of Upper Egypt. Every thing was tranquil within; the places, the forts, and the batteries of the coaſts, were all armed and abundantly ſtored with proviſions: and thoſe kinds of defence might have been ſtill perfected, before Sir Sidney Smith could make new preparations, and form, with the different corps from

Salonica

Salonica and the Dardanells, another army. The advanced guard of the Grand Vizier had ſcarcely reached the camp of Damaſcus; and the failure of proviſions which had retarded his march, the exhauſted ſtate of the province of Syria, together with the little harmony which reigned between the Ottoman miniſter and the old Pacha of St. John d'Acre, and which had become more and more irreconcileable ſince his ſucceſs, left no apprehenſions that the eaſtern frontiers would be ſoon menaced.

The laſt moments of the abode of Bonaparte and General Berthier, were employed in aſſuring the pay of the army, in providing for its wants, and diſtributing rewards. Such is ſaid to have been the interior and exterior ſituation of Egypt when Bonaparte ventured to quit his army, and, to accompliſh other deſigns, truſted his fortune to the waves.

He diſcloſed his projects only to General Berthier; gave orders to Admiral Gantheaume to get ready two frigates, an Aviſo and a Tartane, without informing him of the deſtination of thoſe veſſels; the perſons on whom he conferred the perilous favour of accompanying him were the Generals Lannes, Marmot, Murat, and Andreoſſi, together with Monge and Berthollet, Beſſieres, the chief of brigade, and his guides, received ſealed notes, which they were to open on a certain day (Auguſt 26th), at ſuch an hour, and at ſuch a point of the ſea-ſhore. They found in them an order to embark immediately, and without permitting themſelves any ſort of communication. A ſimilar packet, which was to be opened only twenty-four hours after the departure of the veſſels, was deſtined for General Kleber, and contained his nomination to the chief command, and for Deſaix that of Upper Egypt. This confidence in the good diſpoſition of the army, and in the firmneſs and influence of the Generals Kleber and Deſaix, could arife only from an entire and reciprocal devotedneſs between the chiefs and the ſoldiers; but this ſudden diſappearance, the only poſſible means of putting

putting his plan in execution, was alſo the ſtrongeſt proof of the ſubordination and diſcipline of his ſoldiers.

It was on the 24th of Auguſt that Bonaparte, hindered at firſt by the winds, left the Road of Aboukir, and ſailed for the iſland of Corſica. He anchored at Ajaccio the 1ſt of September; he left it ſeven days after; and his two frigates having been chaced by an Engliſh ſquadron, he would not ſuffer Admiral Gantheaume, who ſaw no hopes of ſafety, to turn back to Corſica, but was reſolved to truſt to fortune: it was as favourable to him, within ſight of the coaſts of France, as it had been the preceding year within ſight of thoſe of Egypt. He avoided the Roads of Toulon on account of cruizers which might have been hovering round it, entered the port of Trejus, and landed (September 14th) the forty-ſeventh day of his departure from Egypt.

Such is the ſubſtance of the report given by General Berthier, on his return with Bonaparte from Egypt. But it muſt not be denied, that ſince that period, various letters, ſaid to be written by French agents and officers, intercepted, and publiſhed by authority, preſent a ſad reverſe of the picture. From this correſpondence it appears that the revenues of the country, eſtimated at 50,000,000 of livres, did not amount to two-fifths of that ſum in time of peace; and in time of war to no more than one-fourth;—that all the means of levying contributions had been exhauſted; and that even extreme violence was inſufficient to exhume treaſures, which the cautious proprietor concealed.—The ſame difficulties attended the procuring of proviſions; for after having obtained them at the point of the bayonet, the greateſt inconveniences attended the tranſport to the points where they were wanted. According to theſe letters, there was due more than 10,000,000 of livres to the army: money had totally diſappeared, from the impoſſibility of exporting the produce of the country:—the friendſhip of the Egyptians towards the

French

French was repreſented as a mere diſſimulation, though they deteſted the tyranny of the Mamelukes, and dreaded the deſpotiſm of Conſtantinople, yet they gave the preference to the French only till they could find an opportunity of diſengaging themſelves from their yoke.—Theſe letters further obſerved, that on their arrival in Egypt, the French had 31,000 effective men, at a time too, when they had only Mamelukes and Arabs to ſtruggle with,—that the recruited Arabs and Mamelukes were as numerous as at firſt; and that they had for their auxiliaries, the formidable armies of the Engliſh, the Ruſſians, and the Turks.—That every victory coſt the French a part of their beſt troops, which loſs could not, at ſuch a diſtance, be repaired; and that a defeat, which ſeemed inevitable, would altogether annihilate them: the army, it appeared, was reduced to two-thirds in number;—many were diſeaſed and unfit for ſervice; yet, with this diminiſhed army, they were compelled to keep in ſubordination 3,000,000 of inhabitants, who might be accounted as ſo many enemies, and defend a ſurface of country of 500 leagues. As an aggravation of their misfortunes, it was ſtated, that the Nile, the only ſource of abundance in Egypt, had that year failed.

After detailing the hiſtory of their ſufferings and dangers, the writers of theſe intercepted letters obſerve, that the country of Egypt itſelf, is ſuſceptible of great amelioration, and capable of being made the fineſt colony in the world; but that the ſeaſon for invading it had been badly choſen, and that without maritime force, it was impoſſible to retain it;—that if the French were peaceably maſters of the country for only a few years, the plagues which uſually infeſt it, the Arabs and the peſtilence, would ſoon diſappear; and ſuch a ſpur would be given to induſtry as ſhould bring it back to its ancient ſplendor: but that while the French were without marine, the Engliſh maſters of the ſea, and the French at war with the Turks, the poſſeſſion of Egypt was impoſſible;—that theſe obſtacles did not indeed

indeed exiſt when the expedition took place: that then peace was reſtored to the continent, a marine of certain force exiſted in the Mediterranean, the French were in poſſeſſion of almoſt all Italy, Corfu, and Malta, and were ſuppoſed to have had at leaſt the tacit approbation of the Turks for the expedition to Egypt: the evacuation of this country might then have been made (ſay they) a powerful condition in negociation of peace with the Engliſh, on account of its proximity to the Indies; but ſuch a motive could no longer influence the Britiſh cabinet, ſince it could not be unacquainted with the actual ſtate of the French in Egypt;—that the Porte alſo, would not conſent to a peace without the permiſſion of that cabinet, while the French retained the poſſeſſion;—that not only it was become impoſſible to retain it, but that, if the French delayed longer to make peace, the army would periſh, or be forced to evacuate it unconditionally; whilſt its evacuation by treaty at preſent would re-eſtabliſh peace with the Ottoman Porte and the Barbary States, and prepare the way for peace with England. With diplomatic ſubtilty it was likewiſe obſerved, that this pacification with Turkey would infallibly engage it in a war with Ruſſia, which would not only make a happy diverſion in Europe, but might open the way for the French to re-take what they had loſt in the Mediterranean. For theſe reaſons they conclude, that the diſtance of time and place, and the preſſure of events, might not permit them to wait the orders of the French government, without committing the intereſts of the republic, and the ſafety and glory of the remainder of the army; that Egypt muſt be evacuated, and peace and their former connections be eſtabliſhed with the Ottoman and Barbary powers;—that the only thing the French government could hope for was, that General Kleber might delay the negociation till orders were received, if negociation ſhould ſtill be poſſible; but that if the evacuation ſhould take place before ſuch orders arrived, it would take place, not only becauſe it was commanded

manded by motives of prudence and conſideration for their beſt political intereſts, but alſo becauſe it was inevitable. Such were the reaſonings and conjectures of the French politicians of thoſe times; and the events that followed ſoon after, have ſanctioned their opinions.

It appears that Bonaparte's concluſions on leaving Egypt were the ſame as thoſe of the correſpondents with the directory. "If this year," ſays that General on his leaving Egypt, in a letter addreſſed to Kleber, "in ſpite of all our precautions, the peſtilence ſhould rage in Egypt, and deſtroy more than 1,500 ſoldiers, I think that you ought not to run the chance of the next campaign; and that you are authorized to conclude peace with the Ottoman Porte, though the evacuation of Egypt ſhould be the principal condition." In addition to theſe motives alledged by other correſpondents with the directory, for entering into a negociation with the Porte, Kleber informs them, that the army of the Grand Vizier, Djezzar, amounting to 30,000 men, had reached Gaza, and the Engliſh were maſters of the Red Sea;—that of the two keys of Egypt at the eaſt and weſt, El-Ariſch was a fortreſs of little ſtrength, and Alexandria only a vaſt entrenched camp, and without ſufficient artillery; that, reduced as his army then was, he ſhould continue the negociations with the Porte which Bonaparte had begun, offering as conditions, for the French to remain in the country, the re-eſtabliſhment of a Pacha for the civil government of Egypt, dividing the revenues, keeping poſſeſſion of the poſts and ſtrong places till peace was made with the Engliſh—propoſitions to which the General did not believe the conſent of the Turk would be obtained, not only from feelings of pride, but alſo from the commanding influence which the Engliſh had gained in his councils, and which they would not fail to exerciſe in the manner moſt ſuitable to their intereſts.

Of

Of the repreſentations made in theſe letters (whether they be forgeries or not), the greater part ſeems well founded; the poſſeſſion of Egypt, however important, was no doubt a meaſure of the higheſt impolicy, and had become the ſignal of ſpreading the fury of war from the Frozen Sea to the peninſula of India. Some exaggeration of evil may be allowed to Frenchmen, contraſting their ſituation in Egypt, with their brilliant campaigns in the rich and civilized climes of Italy, eſpecially in the firſt moments of anger and depreſſion, at the ſudden diſappearance of Bonaparte, whoſe preſence inſpired confidence where it could not expel ſuffering, and whoſe participation in the general calamity alleviated its individual weight. Theſe intercepted letters, however, were followed ſoon after by other diſpatches, which reached the French government, from General Kleber, and which ſeemed to contradict, in ſome inſtances, the mournful prognoſtics contained in the former.

From theſe diſpatches, dated September 22d, and November 16th, it appears that Murad Bey, having fallen down the Nile to El-Ganayur, had been driven back by a diviſion of the army of Upper Egypt, under General Morand. Overtaken in his flight by the French diviſion, which in four days traverſed fifty leagues of deſert, his camp was ſurpriſed at Samahout a great number of Mamelukes were put to the ſword, 200 camels loaded with ſpoils, 100 horſes, and a prodigious quantity of arms, were taken, and the Bey himſelf narrowly eſcaped being made priſoner.

After his defeat, Murad wandered about in the deſerts of Upper Egypt, and made incurſions into the cultivated country to ſeek food, or find refuge from theſe irreſiſtible Francs. General Deſaix, who was anxious to rid himſelf of this indefatigable adverſary, organized two moveable columns, compoſed of infantry, mounted on dromedaries, and of cavalry and artillery; theſe columns left Syout, the head-quarters, in the latter days of September, commanded, the one

by Deſaix himſelf, and the other by Adjutant-general Boyer. The latter column, after three days of forced march, came up with Murad (October 19th) in the deſert of Sediman. With their uſual impetuoſity the Mamelukes began the attack, being allured by ſeeing the dromedaries, and in hopes of getting poſſeſſion of them. Charged in their turn, with great vigour, the Mamelukes and Arabs took flight, leaving the French maſters of the field, who afterwards, on their dromedaries, chaced them back to the deſerts.

Mean while, the Grand Vizier with his army was marching from Damaſcus to Gaza, where he had fixed his head-quarters. Deſaix had been ordered by General Kleber to Cairo, from which he had been ſent with a diviſion deſtined to act on the frontier of Syria againſt the Grand Vizier. The movements of that army, together with thoſe of Murad, had ſuggeſted to Kleber, that ſome enterprize was about to take place on the coaſt, when (September 24th) eighteen Turkiſh ſhips anchored before Damietta, which were ſucceſſively augmented, ſo that, by the end of the following month, they were encreaſed to fifty-three. This fleet was commanded by Sir Sidney Smith, on board the Tigre. The coaſt was ſounded, the paſs to Damietta was marked with buoys, and gun-boats were eſtabliſhed on the line. The Turkiſh army took poſſeſſion of a tower at the mouth of the Nile, and formed it into a poſt, defended with one piece of artillery; thus protected, the army, amounting to 4,000 men, made good their landing (November 1ſt), and began to entrench themſelves on the point ſituated between the right ſide of the Nile, the ſea, and the Lake Menzala.

They had no ſooner made good their poſition, than General Verdier, who was encamped between Leſbe and the coaſt, marched againſt them with 1,000 men, and, without waiting for reinforcements, deſtroyed 3,000, and made 800 priſoners, among whom was Iſmael Bey, the ſecond in command; took thirty-two ſtand of colours, and five pieces of artillery. This diviſion

viſion made part of an army of 8,000 Janiſaries which had ſailed from Conſtantinople. The veſſels remained for ſome time longer on the coaſt, which bad weather compelled them to quit.

Mean while, the French continued their preparations againſt a more numerous and formidable enemy which was about to pour on them acroſs the deſerts of Syria, and againſt whom, without reinforcements, which in the circumſtances of the French marine it was hopeleſs to expect, or prodigies of valour, which it were uſeleſs to perform, nothing could be oppoſed but ſubmiſſion, almoſt unconditional, and the abandoning a country, the conqueſt and civilization of which muſt have been, at any period, a work of time and difficulty, but in the preſent circumſtances an operation altogether impoſſible.

From the ſhores of Africa and Aſia, where ſo much blood had been uſeleſsly ſhed, we now return to the no leſs enſanguined, but more extenſive theatre of war, in Europe, where victory, hitherto faithful to the ſtandard of the allies, began once more to hover over that of the republican armies. If this vaſt campaign be divided into regular epochas, it was the fourth period which the belligerent powers had now attained: the firſt period was the firſt offenſive movement of the French under the late directory, the conqueſt of the Griſons by Maſſena, of the frontier of Tyrol by Lecourbe, the victory of Stockach by the Archduke, that on the Adige by Kray, and the retreat of the French. The ſecond epocha was the offenſive movements of the allies in Italy, the paſſage of the Adda, the re-taking of Lombardy, and part of Piedmont, the conqueſt of the Griſons, paſſage of the Rhine, and the taking of Zurich by the Archduke, the active defence of the French in Switzerland and Italy, the defeat of Macdonald by Suwarrow, the defence of the Ligurian republic, the junction of Macdonald, the re-capture of Tuſcany, and the taking of Mantua. In the third epocha, may be comprehended the ſecond offenſive march of the French,

French, the battle of Novi, Championet's general attack on the poſts of the Alps and Piedmont, Maſſena's attack on Zurich, the re-capture of St. Gothard by Lecourbe, the paſſage of the Rhine by the French general, Muller, the invaſion of the Palatinate, and the bombardment of Philipſburg. The new plan projected by the two Imperial courts conſiſted in forming in the centre, in Switzerland, a great Ruſſian army under the command of Suwarrow; on the left, in Italy, an Auſtrian army, commanded by Generals Kray and Melas; on the right, upon the Rhine, the Imperial army and that of the empire, under the immediate command of the Archduke in perſon.

This new and mighty arrangement, was certainly preferable to that of the former mixture of troops of different nations in the combined armies, which, even ſuppoſing the moſt perfect harmony, was unavoidably injurious to the ſervice, from the difference in language, order, and diſcipline, and probably in religion too; for every inſtance of ſucceſs, from rivalſhip in courage and talents, many great diſadvantages were to be put in counterbalance.

Each of the three armies, therefore, were to be gainers by this new arrangement; the Ruſſians had taken the neareſt and moſt favourable poſition for receiving their recruits; the inevitable confuſion in depots, hoſpitals, and magazines, was divided; each army was alſo to receive auxiliaries in Italy, Switzerland, and Germany. The Piedmonteſe troops, and thoſe of the confederated Princes in Italy, were required to augment the forces of General Kray; the new levies in the Griſons and the little cantons, troops formed by ancient Swiſs officers, the corps of the Prince of Conde, and a diviſion of Bavarian troops, were to join the Ruſſian army; and the different contingents of the empire, and the levy of the militia newly organized in the electorate, were deſtined to reinforce the army commanded by the Archduke. From the neareſt calculations that could be made, it appeared that each of

thoſe

thoſe armies, ſeparate and complete, was to conſiſt of 70,000 men. A conſiderable corps of the army of the Archduke was to remain in Switzerland, under the command of General Hotze.

This Prince had executed part of his plan on the Lower Rhine; but the execution of that entruſted to Suwarrow, was one of the moſt difficult operations that could be attempted, in the face of an active and enterpriſing enemy. The centre of Suwarrow's army was at Aſti (September 1ſt); the left wing occupied Novi, covered Tortona, and extended its poſts within ſight of Bochetta; the right ſtretched away to the Po, towards Turin; two Ruſſian diviſions were poſted in the environs of Spigno and Acqui; and the poſts at the entrances of the valleys of the Alps of Piedmont had been reinforced.

Mean while, Championet continued a very active war of poſts; one of his columns had entered Suza, a ſecond had taken poſſeſſion of the town and valley of Aoſta, forcing the Imperialiſts to fall back to the fort of Bard; and while he ſeemed to be meditating an attack on the ſide of Coni, and the Col de Tende, he forced various important poſts, and penetrated as far as Pignerol. Moreau having maintained his poſts on the ſide of the eaſtern river againſt the attacks of General Klenau, had concentrated his forces between Savona and St. Guiacomo, puſhed detachments as far as Baſſaluza and Capriata, and made diſpoſitions for advancing.

Suwarrow began his march (September 8th) with the firſt column of Ruſſians, under the command of General Roſenberg, who directed his courſe by Novarra, in order to paſs St. Gothard by Bellinzone. Whether Moreau had intimation of this movement, from the manœuvres of General Kray, or whether the eventual truce of Tortona, not being yet expired, he had conceived hopes of carrying off this trophy of the battle of Novi, he ſallied from his poſition (September 9th) with a body of from 20 to 25,000 men, forming three columns,

columns, the firſt directed towards Acqui, and the two others towards Novi and Serra Valle. General Kray having marched to meet him with his left, and a part of the centre of the Imperial armies, a very warm engagement took place;—the French columns were repulſed, and after conſiderable loſs, Moreau retreated and reſumed his former poſitions.

Suwarrow at length became maſter of the citadel of Tortona; and, after taking a public farewell, and teſtifying his gratitude to the Auſtrian generals, and to the army, marched off towards Switzerland with the rear-guard of the Ruſſian troops. After the ſurrender of Tortona, the whole of the army of General Kray, which was encamped at Bozzalo di Formizaro, and at Rivalta, to cover the ſiege, marched at firſt towards Aleſſandria, and afterwards towards Coni, by Feliciano and Alba. The ſtrength of the army, conſiſting of thirty-five battalions, and five regiments of cavalry, under the command of General Melas, aſſembled (9th of September) at Bra, upon the Stura, a central poſition between the Alps and Appenines, and well calculated to oppoſe the progreſs of Championet, and the junction on which he was endeavouring to effect, with General Moreau, before Coni, who was juſt about to reſign to him the command of his army in the Ligurian republic. Championet was then at Pignerol; the corps which he had marched towards Suza, compoſed of 6 or 7,000 men, advanced towards Turin; the column of the left of the French army of the Alps marched from Aoſta towards Ivrea, occupied by General Haddick whoſe diviſion formed the right of the Auſtrian army. By means of theſe manœuvres, which threatened Turin, and the right flank of the Auſtrian army, Championet marched in force, by Salucca, to the entrance of the valley Stura, near the famous field of battle of Staffardi, where Marſhal Catinat, beat the Duke of Savoy in 1690.

Several engagements took place between Foſſano and Savigliano, defended by General Gotteſheim with

with an advanced guard of 6,000 men; he was, nevertheleſs compelled to give up theſe two important poſts, of which Championet took poſſeſſion, but was obliged to cede them in his turn.

General Kray having, as has been obſerved, aſſembled his forces at Bra, loſt no time in attacking Championet's army, which was almoſt inſulated, and ſo far advanced, that it had only one march more to make in order to form its junction with Moreau's army.

The Auſtrian army broke up its camp at Bra (September 18th), and divided itſelf into two columns; Kray put himſelf at the head of the left, and marched towards Foſſano: General Melas, commanding the ſecond, marched to attack Savigliano; the action commenced with this laſt column; that of the right attacked, and retook the poſt of Savigliano The French evacuated Foſſano during the night, and after conſiderable loſs, retreated towards Mira. All the chain of poſts above Turin, had been attacked at the ſame time; General Bellegarde, driven back on the ſide of Rivoli, was ſupported by Generals Kaim and Vukaſſovich, who forced the French to retreat towards Suza.

Such were the manœuvres and the actions by which General Kray, covered and ſecured the march of the Ruſſians, who were haſtening, with all expedition, to reach the paſſes of St. Gothard. After this attempt, in which, as the event proved, it was happy for the French that they did not ſucceed, Championet having left to Duheſme the command of the troops, went to receive from the hands of Moreau, that of the army of Italy, under which denomination was now to be comprehended that of the Alps. Moreau had juſt been recalled to Paris.

In taking leave of his army at the head-quarters, he congratulated it upon the diſplay which it had made of the moſt heroic courage, its conſtancy in bearing up under every kind of privation. The new commander alſo iſſued a proclamation, in which he conſidered as

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an inſult to the army, the reports which had been diſſeminated reſpecting the projected evacuation of the Ligurian territory.

The city of Genoa had been put in a ſtate of ſiege, a few days before the arrival of Championet; the government was ſuſpended and made ſubordinate to military authority. Serious confuſions had obliged the French to make uſe of this precaution which the remembrance of the famous revolution of 1746, perhaps juſtified. For there is in the character of nations as well as in that of individuals, certain features, which ſeem effaced, and appear again on a ſudden, where ſimilar circumſtances awaken the ſame ſentiments: that revolution, when the Genoeſe mob expelled the Auſtrians their conquerors, furniſhed a memorable example of the energy which a ſpark can rekindle in the ſpirit of a people, though degraded to the loweſt degree of humiliation.

But ſo deſtructive had been the effects of this bloody war, that, of the army which Suwarrow had led into Italy, and which had been reinforced in the beginning of July by 10 or 11,000 men, which joined him from Hungary, there ſcarcely remained to him more, in the total, than between 18 and 20,000 men; above 30,000 having periſhed. This army aſſembled on Mount Cenere, where Suwarrow joined them (September 15th), and made his diſpoſitions to attack St. Gothard, and to form his junction with the Auſtrian generals, who occupied in the front of the advanced guards of Lecourbe, the frontiers of the Griſons, and the little cantons. This diviſion of Auſtrian troops, expected moreover to receive reinforcements by the Tyrol. Their plan was to drive back Lecourbe, and re-eſtabliſh the left wing of the allied army of Switzerland in its poſitions on the Reuſs, and alſo to ſurround the right of the French army, to ſeparate it from the Valais, and freeing at once the Furca and Engelberg, to march towards Lucerne and Berne, to force Maſſena to quit his poſition

poſition and paſs the Aar in order to ſecure his rear.

The Ruſſians ſtill advanced towards the frontiers of Switzerland. General Strauch with his diviſion, ſupported by General Laudohn, marched forward and reſumed his former poſts. Suwarrow, having aſcended the valley of the Levantine, took poſſeſſion of the poſt of Airolo, and next day that of St. Gothard; while General Roſenberg turned by the ſources of the Rhine, towards the Lake of Oberlap, the poſition of Urſeren.

Since the army of Prince Korſakow had replaced the Auſtrian troops at Zurich, and the Archduke had marched to the relief of Philipſburg, General Hotze commanded the diviſion of the Auſtrian army which had remained in Switzerland, and which conſiſted of twenty-nine battalions and four regiments of cavalry. Conſtrained by ſuperior forces, to abandon Glaris and Neefels, he had taken an advantageous poſition behind the Linth. The Ruſſians extended themſelves from Ulſnach, along the Lake of Zurich, and the Limmat, as far as Baden.

Of Maſſena's army, General Thureau occupied the valley on the right; Lecourbe, before Suwarrow's irruption, held St. Gothard, and the courſe of the Reuſs, as far as the lake of the four cantons, puſhing his advanced guards in the valleys of the Griſons. The French army from St. Gothard to Baden, comprehending neither the diviſion in the Vallais, which amounted to 8,000, nor that in the entrenchments at Baſil, which amounted to 6,000, both of which were diſtant from the ſcene of action, made up 64,000 men. The allied army, previous to the arrival of Suwarrow, conſiſted of 59,000 men, and by his acceſſion might be eſtimated at nearly 80,000 effective troops.

Maſſena, after the ſucceſs obtained by General Lecourbe on his right, had preſſed upon the left wing of the allied army, in order to attack the centre with more advantage. General Lecourbe had juſt made an advance, endeavouring to penetrate, and turn by the val-

ley of the Griſons, the whole of the poſitions which covered the line of General Hotze. Maſſena prepared himſelf thus by degrees for a general engagement: the news of the march and progreſs of Suwarrow, who might, in a few days, execute on the rear of the right of the French, in the weſt of Switzerland, what Maſſena meditated on the frontiers of the eaſt againſt the weſt of the allies, precipitated his diſpoſitions, and he took advantage of the laſt moment left him to make his attack.

Prince Korſakow's poſition at Zurich, on the heights, and on the two banks of the Limmat, was the centre or head of the general line, occupied by the three diviſions of the allied army, from the poſt of Waſen on the lake of Wallenſtadt, to the Rhine.

Such was the evident advantage of the poſitions of Hotze: and the object of the firſt manœuvres of Maſſena, was to diſlodge him from it, if practicable, at the beginning of the action, in order to ſeparate him altogether from General Jellachich on his left, to render his junction with Suwarrow impracticable; and to attack the centre with more confidence where the rear was threatened. Maſſena, to attain this important end, made divers ſigns of movements in the Frickthal, and on the Aar. At length (September 24th), after having drawn the attention of the allied army by a falſe attack againſt Bruck, he gave orders to General Lorges to paſs the Limmat above Baden with his diviſion, and to attack the camp of the Ruſſians on the oppoſite bank. General Mortier's diviſion, and the reſerve commanded by General Kleim, marched up to the heights on the weſt of Zurich, and attacked in front. Maſſena had alſo given orders to General Soult to paſs the Linth, at the moment the action ſhould begin on the ſide of Zurich, and to attack the advanced poſts of the Auſtrians in that quarter.

General Hotze, ſurpriſed at this impetuous attack, and informed that the French had already paſſed the Linth, mounted his horſe, and with a few officers, haſtened

tened towards the advanced poſts, in order to reconnoitre between Schænis and Kalter Brun. He advanced raſhly; the party was ſurrounded, attached, and Hotze remained dead on the field of battle. His fall was as much regretted by the allies, as General Joubert's had been by the French, at the battle of Novi. The Imperial army of Switzerland could not have ſuſtained a greater loſs than that of the defender of Feldkirch; nor at a moment more unſuitable, when the talents of this great officer, and the particular knowledge of the difficult country in which he was then acting, were ſo indiſpenſably neceſſary:—in his fall the Ruſſian Generals loſt their guide. This accompliſhed commander, Hotze, born at Zurich was ſlain in ſight of his very home.

The French followed up their firſt advantage with great vigour and perſeverance; they firſt carried the bridge of Grinau, at the fort of the Brunberg, at the entrance of the Linth into the lake of Zurich; the Prince of Wirtemburg, haſtened from Rapperſchweil, with three Ruſſian battalions, re-took this poſt, but could not maintain it againſt a freſh attack. The bridge remained in the power of the French; and, from that moment, the Auſtrian troops, who had already been thrown into confuſion, by the loſs of their General, could not maintain themſelves in the poſition of Ulznach, the right flank of which was about to be turned. General Soult, having beat Hotze's diviſion, forced them, after freſh defeats, the following day to retreat in diſorder by the Goldinar Thal, towards Lichtenſtein, into Toggenburg. This left wing, of which General Petrach took the command after the fall of General Hotze, was therefore entirely ſeparated from the centre of the army, the left flank and reer of which remained uncovered.

Zurich ſoon after fell into the hands of the victors. General Lorge had, with his diviſion, carried all the poſts in his way, forced the camp, and driven the Ruſſians back to the walls of Zurich. The weſtern heights had

had been carried by Generals Mortier and Klein. The French attacked with ſo much bravery, and the Ruſſians defended themſelves with ſo much firmneſs, and kept their poſts and their ranks with ſo much perſeverance, that the carnage was horrible, as was alſo their entire defeat: of the latter the Ruſſian baggage and artillery were all taken. A ſtrong rearguard, ſhut up in Zurich, refuſed to ſurrender upon terms, and the town was taken ſword in hand. Prince Korſakow retreated by Bulach and Winterthur to Schaffhauſen.

By theſe ſucceſsful manœuvres and operations, the French became maſters of the poſition of Zurich, of both ſides of the Lake, and of the courſe of the Glatt; purſued, in two directions, of St. Gall and Schaffhauſen, the flying Auſtrians and Ruſſians, who, diſabled from rallying, or taking poſitions on the Thur, were compelled to paſs the Rhine, and to place the Lake of Conſtance between them and their purſuers. The towns of Conſtance and Peterhauſen were occupied by the advanced guard of the French, who had ſome difficulty at firſt in keeping their poſts.

Mean while, General Suwarrow, having forced back as far as Altorf the brigade of General Gudin, was ſtopt by the diviſions which Lecourbe had collected and marched againſt him, among which was that of General Loiſon. His deſign was to break through the right wing of the French army; to penetrate by the valley of the Linth, into the canton of Zurich, and by forcing Maſſena to fall back with his left, to diſengage and rally before him the two corps which had been defeated.

General Suwarrow annexed high importance to this ſecond project, of which an idea may be formed by the letter which he wrote to the commander of the Ruſſian troops which had been diſlodged before Zurich,—"You ſhall anſwer with your head if you make another retrograde ſtep; I am marching to repair your errors."

General

General Maſſena, forſeeing that Lecourbe's wing could not ſuſtain the attacks of Suwarrow's army, united to the diviſions of Jellachich and Auffenburg, marched to his aſſiſtance with a corps of about 15,000 men; he directed General Mortimer's diviſion towards Schwitz, that of General Soult towards Waſen, and directed his own march towards Altorf. After the affair of Zurich, Marſhal Linken gained ſome advantage on the left ſide of the Lake of Wallenſtadt, had taken two French battalions, and endeavouring to favour Suwarrow's movement by the centre, had advanced (September 29th) as far as Glaris, but unable to communicate either by his right or his left, he was forced to withdraw into the Griſons.

Suwarrow, in the mean time, notwithſtanding the moſt obſtinate reſiſtance, and the bloody conflicts which inceſſantly took place in the narrow valleys of Muttenthal and the Linthal, had penetrated as far as Mutten and Schwitz; and a part of General Roſſenberg's corps, after having repulſed a French diviſion as far as the defile of Mutten, reached Glaris, which General Linken had juſt evacuated. It was in the plain of the valley of Mutten, near Schwitz, that Lecourbe had to ſuſtain the greateſt efforts of the Ruſſian troops, by whom (October 3d and 4th) the bridge on the Mutten, and the poſt of Brunnen, were carried, after a dreadful engagement.

Theſe operations terminated the career of Suwarrow—he penetrated no further. It was only after theſe diſaſters that the Ruſſian commander diſcovered that he ought not to have attempted it, nor hazarded a general action. On one ſide of the lower valley of Glaris, the paſſage between the Lakes of Zurich and Wallenſtadt were ſhut againſt him; and, on the other ſide, if he had puſhed on to the more open poſition of Einſidlen, he would have fallen into the ſnare which Maſſena had laid for him; who, in a deciſive action, ſurrounding his left flank, might have cut off his retreat from the Griſons.

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The Ruſſians, and the diviſions under Generals Auffenberg and Jellachich, retreated, therefore, from the cantons of Schwitz and Glaris, by Flemſthal into the valley of the Griſons. This retreat was not effected without conſiderable loſs, as well from the purſuers, as the extreme difficulty of the paſſes acroſs the mountains; their rearguard was almoſt deſtroyed by the column which Maſſena had directed on Altorf. Their wounded, of which the number was prodigious, were incapable of being tranſported, and almoſt the whole of their artillery and baggage fell into the hands of the French; and the Ruſſian commander himſelf narrowly eſcaped being killed or taken by his purſuers.

It might have been concluded, that this laſt effort of General Suwarrow to effect the junction of the two armies, would have been ſeconded by a movement of Prince Korſakow, againſt the left of the French; and in fact, whilſt, with a part of the centre of the French army, General Maſſena had ſo ſkilfully and happily ſupported his right, the allies had re-paſſed the Rhine, and marched towards Wintherthur. The ſtrongeſt part of Prince Korſakow's column had paſſed the bridge of Diedenhoffen, and Conde's corps, with the Bavarian troops, had entered into Thurgau by the bridge of Conſtance. Maſſena, informed of this movement, ordered Soult's diviſion to march at firſt towards Rhyneck, at the head of the Lake of Conſtance, in order to ſecure his right flank, and to keep in check the Auſtrian corps, which, under the command of General Petruch, had croſſed the Rheinthal, and retreated towards Feldkirch and Bregentz. At the ſame time, he paſſed from the right to the left of the army, putting himſelf at the head of the diviſions which were before Zurich, met the allies (October 7th) between the Thur and the Rhine, and charging the columns at the head of their advanced poſts, defeated, and compelled them to re-paſs the Rhine. The bridge of Diedenhoffen was broken down, the French took poſſeſſion of that of Conſtance, and purſued acroſs the town as far as

as Peterhauſen, the rearguard of the corps of Conde' and of the Bavarians.

The action was very hot on the ſide of Conſtance; the left-wing, commanded by the Duke D'Enghein, gained at firſt ſome advantage, but was at length repulſed. General Bawer, who commanded the right, was cut off, with part of his cavalry, but he broke through the French line, re-entered the town, took poſſeſſion of the bridge of the Rhine, and covered the reſt of the retreat. Conſtance was three times alternately in the reſpective poſſeſſions of the French and the allies, but definitively remained in the hands of the French.

Such was the termination of this long and bloody battle of Zurich, which, from the firſt attacks of the advanced poſts (September 24th), had continued fifteen days! The half of Switzerland, all the eaſtern part comprehended between the courſe of the Reuſs and that of the Rhine, from St. Gothard as far as Conſtance, ſerved as the field of battle; and this vaſt interval, filled up with difficult poſitions, was ſo occupied, that in the ſpace of about eighty or ninety miles in length, from north to ſouth, and fifty miles in breadth, there was not a ſingle valley, a ſingle paſs practicable in the high mountains, a ſingle communication between the lakes and the rivers, which were not all in their turns diſputed by pitched battles between the hoſtile armies, occupied as poſts, traverſed by troops, marching and manœuvring, all in relation to the ſame action.—A circumſtance that finds ſcarcely a parallel in modern military tactics, and nothing ſimilar to it can be traced in the warfare of the ancient nations.

Curioſity prompts the reader to wiſh to have it in his power to aſcertain, and to form an exact eſtimation of the loſs of both armies during theſe fifteen days. That of the allies had been eſtimated at above 25,000 men; and it is probable that, taking into the calculation the loſs ſuſtained on both ſides in the engagements between General Thureau and the detachment of the Auſtrian army

army in Italy, on the frontier of the Vallais, and in the valley of Domo di Oſſola, there would be but very little deviation from the exacteſt truth in eſtimating at 40,000 men, the loſs of both armies in killed, wounded, and priſoners, which was more than a quarter of the effective force under arms.

No ſooner did the Imperial commander in chief, the Archduke, receive, at his head-quarters on the Lower Rhine, the news of this diſaſtrous battle at Zurich, and was further informed that the Generals of the French army of the Rhine had filed off troops towards Straſbourg and Baſil, than he left his ſtation on the river, which he was threatening to paſs, and ſet out with the greateſt part of the troops which he had brought to Manheim, leaving, however, with Prince Schwartzemberg, a ſufficient force to cover Manheim and Philipſburg. This countermarch was executed with as much rapidity, as when he marched to the relief of Philipſburg. He then held a council of war (October 4th). The Auſtrian troops entered Upper Suabia, and the frontiers of Switzerland, a few days after, where that Imperial commander found it neceſſary to rally and concentrate them; he ordered General Nauendorf, who was ſtationed in obſervation on the ſide of the Briſgaw, to take a ſtrong and nearer poſition in Upper Suabia.

General Korſakow filed off a part of his troops towards the Lake Conſtance; and on the other ſide, Suwarrow, who had fixed his head-quarters at Coire, after having received a great part of the artillery he had left in Italy, by the Lake of Como, and the road of Chiavenna, marched to Feldkirch, united the cordon on the right ſide of the Lake of Conſtance, and met at Lindau the Ruſſian generals. By this time the French had re-taken St. Gothard; and although the ſeaſon was already very far advanced, they threatened alſo to re-enter the Griſons by the valley of Diſſentis and by Sargens. Beyond Switzerland, and on the other ſide of Italy, the chief communication with their army was covered.

covered. The attacks of General Laudohn and of Colonel Struach, and their efforts to enter the Vallais, had no longer any object which was connected with the general operations. On the Lower Rhine, General Muller, re-paſſing the river, marched anew towards Frankfort, Hedelberg, and Manheim, and eaſily diſperſed the militia, which had not been duly ſupported.

Such were ſome of the immediate conſequences of the loſs of the battle of Zurich; thoſe, however, more remote, and which we will have occaſion to mention, were of infinitely greater importance.

The almoſt entire evacuation of Switzerland by the allies, the reſpective ſituation of the two armies, the ſtrength of the defenſive poſition of Voralberg, connected by the Lake of Conſtance with that of Upper Suabia, forced both ſides, once more, to a ſuſpenſion of arms. The conquerors and the conquered, after efforts ſo prodigious, were almoſt equally exhauſted;—both had demanded, and waited for reinforcements. In this laſt period, the laſt reſources of both armies had been entirely deſtroyed; the little which the inhabitants had been able to collect, was entirely conſumed: Switzerland, during that dreadful fortnight, was nothing but a ſea of fire and flame. The ſcourge of war, which for three ages paſt had devoured Italy and Germany, had yet reſpected Switzerland; but at preſent that torrent of calamities, which political bounds had hitherto reſtrained, as well as thoſe which had been placed by nature, were entirely overthrown; and this unfortunate country was now inundated with the ravages of war, the moſt dreadful and exterminating almoſt recorded in the page of hiſtory.

Our readers will recollect, that we have ſpoken of the great line of battle from the Danube to the Adriatic Gulf.—Great, no doubt, compared to every other in former wars; but if we conſider the military operations in which the French were engaged, we may conſider that a line, in a ſtill more extenſive point of view,

as obliquely lengthened from near the ſources of the Nile and Ethiopia, towards whoſe mountains the French were chaſing the ſwarthy barbarians, to the tempeſt-beaten (as the journaliſts term it), marſhy peninſula of North Holland, the oppoſite point, or right of this great line; while at the centre, victory, the moſt ſignal and complete, as well as the moſt unexpected, had deſtroyed for the preſent campaign, on the part of the coalition, all hopes of the immediate repartition of royalty, and given the French government a momentary force, of which it ſtood in need, to check the inroads of domeſtic faction. To finiſh the events of this fourth epocha of the campaign, we now return to the invaſion of the Batavian republic, which deeply intereſted the Britiſh empire.

It will be within the recollection of our readers, that we left the Engliſh in poſſeſſion of Alkmaar (October 3d), after defeating the French and Dutch army, and puſhing on their advanced poſts towards Haerlem, while with their left they threatened Amſterdam, from which, though they had many obſtacles to ſurmount, they were at no great diſtance. During the two days that followed this victory, the two armies reſted themſelves, but the day following, the Duke of York attacked anew the whole front line. If he had thought it poſſible to carry, as it were by ſtorm, the whole concentered poſition which General Brune had taken, he was (in the opinion of military men) in the right not to ſuffer him to make good his poſition; and the ſtronger the inundations rendered the right of the Dutch, the more preſſing it was to puſh back beyond Haerlem the body of troops entrenched at Beverwich.

The Engliſh and Ruſſian army in this ſecond attack obtained ſome advantages; they had carried Akerſtoot, and had advanced as far as Kaſtricum; but the action having become general, the fortune of war took a melancholy reverſe. Whilſt the French troops attacked in their turn, Brune ſeized a favourable moment to charge at the head of his cavalry, and broke the line of

of the Engliſh and Ruſſians, who could neither ſupport each other, nor keep the ground which they had gained;—they were repulſed beyond the Baccum, after having ſuſtained a conſiderable loſs. It appears that this charge made by General Brune, who in this affair had two horſes ſhot under him, by his addreſs and courage contributed greatly to the ſucceſs of the day.

The battle laſted till night, and the French and Dutch army returned to its poſition at Beverwich. The reſult of this ſecond battle, in appearance, indeed, of little conſequence, and no-way deciſive, though much blood was ſhed on both ſides, was entirely in favour of the Dutch: it was, in fact, a victory to have cauſed the failure of a deſperate attack, on the ſucceſs of which depended not only the means of finiſhing the moſt difficult of all enterprizes, but alſo thoſe of procuring ſubſiſtence for an army, which, unable either to extend itſelf, or draw its reſources from the country then in its poſſeſſion, was forced to receive by way of the ſea every thing neceſſary for its ſupport. In conſequence of theſe ſiniſter circumſtances, and the gloom of diſappointment ſtill thickening, his royal highneſs the Duke of York aſſembled a council of war, where the moſt experienced officers gave it as their unanimous opinion, that the army could no longer keep that advanced poſition,—that it ought to fall back to Zyp, and wait the further orders of his Majeſty.

The reaſonings of the council of war upon this intereſting matter of diſcuſſion were—that although the poſition of his royal highneſs's army was not more than twenty miles from the places of landing, yet the long rains, the broken roads, the breaches in the dykes and canals, rendered the communications impracticable, and the conveyances and diſtributions impoſſible. The ulterior orders of the Engliſh government could, indeed, be no other than the total evacuation of North Holland. There was no time left to change the plan of operations; it was impoſſible to make conſiderable or effective diverſions, without running the riſk of ſacrificing

crificing a brave and loyal army;—to this, the ſeaſon was too far advanced; and the dangerous navigation of the roads of the Texel no longer admitted the ſailing of the tranſports; in ſhort, the immenſe expence of this expedition could not have been balanced by the happieſt reſults that could have been expected from even the moſt brilliant ſucceſs, while the reverſe was truly the caſe.

General Brune, who ſeems to have been an officer not only poſſeſſed of a large ſhare of military talent, but alſo to have had a thorough knowledge of the country, and of the diſpoſitions of the inhabitants (which, alas! was far from being the caſe with his royal rival in arms), ſoon perceived, after this laſt affair, the retrograde movement of the Duke of York. The left and centre of the French and Dutch army re-entered Alkmaar, and took the ſame poſitions as they occupied before the battle; their right, under the orders of General Daendaels, advanced towards Hoorn, of which it alſo took poſſeſſion.

The Engliſh and Ruſſian army evacuated ſucceſſively Enchuyſen and Medenblick, where they had deſtroyed or deſpoiled the dock-yards, the marine eſtabliſhments, the Eaſt India Company's veſſels, and whatever public property they could lay their hands on. Though the retreat was made in good order, yet the army was obliged to leave behind them a part of their wounded for want of carriages, and fame ſays, in moſt deplorable circumſtances; yet theſe, by the known humanity of the French, were greatly alleviated. As the Engliſh and Ruſſians concentered themſelves in their entrenchments at the Zyp, General Daendaels's diviſion cloſed upon their left, ſorely haraſſed their rearguard, and occupied the poſts which they were forced to evacuate. General Dumonceau's diviſion re-eſtabliſhed its communications with Daendaels', whoſe column advanced as far as Luthwinkel, and took poſſeſſion of the Zee-dyke (or barrier next the ſea), in which the Engliſh had made an opening of nineteen

nineteen feet—a means of defence too dreadful to be juſtified, except upon the moſt extreme and deſperate occaſions. The French and Batavian army occupied (October 13th) the poſition neareſt the Zyp, the left before Petten, the centre at Warmanhauſen and Dirkſhorn, the right before Winkel

When the two oppoſing armies occupied theſe poſitions, the Duke of York, having ſent a flag of truce to the French general, propoſed a capitulation, on the baſis of an armiſtice; or, in more explicit terms, of the free retreat, and re-embarkation of his army. On the ſide of the Engliſh, General Knox, and the General of brigade, Roſtollan, chief of the ſtaff of the French and Batavian army, were commiſſioned to negociate, and form the articles of this capitulation, which was concluded at Alkmaar, on the 18th of October.

The ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities, and of all works, either for attack or defence, the ſucceſſive re-embarkation of the allied army, the re-eſtabliſhment of the works of the Helder, and the preſervation of the works conſtructed by the Engliſh and Ruſſian army, the reſtitution of 8,000 French and Batavian priſoners, that of Admiral Winter particularly ſtipulated, were the clauſes of this capitulation. The retreat of the Duke of York's army was followed by the evacuation of Zuyder-Zee, by the flotilla of Admiral Mitchell, and from the iſlands and port of the Lemmer.

We ſhall now give the accounts of theſe important tranſactions as publiſhed by authority.

Head-quarters, Schagenbrug, September 11th, 1799.

Sir,

Having fully conſidered the poſition which the Britiſh troops had occupied on the 1ſt inſtant, and having in view the certainty of ſpeedy and powerful reinforcements, I determined to remain until then on the defenſive. From the information which we received, we we were appriſed of the enemy's intention to attack us, and

and we were daily improving our ſituation. Yeſterday morning, at day-break, the enemy commenced an attack on our centre and right, from St. Martin's to Petten, in three columns, and apparently with their whole force. The column on the right, compoſed of Dutch troops, and under the command of General Daendaels, directed its attack on the village of St. Martins. The centre column of the enemy, under the orders of General Dumonceau, likewiſe compoſed of Dutch troops, marched on to Krabendam and Zyper-Sluys. The left column of the enemy, compoſed of French, directed itſelf on the poſition occupied by Major-general Burrard, commanding the ſecond brigade of guards. The enemy advanced, particularly on their left and centre, with great intrepidity, and penetrated, with the heads of their columns, to within 100 yards of the poſt occupied by the Britiſh troops. They were, however, every where repulſed, owing to the ſtrength of our poſition, and the determined courage of our troops. About ten o'clock the enemy retired towards Alkmaar, leaving behind them many dead, and ſome wounded men, with one piece of cannon, a number of waggons, pontoons, and portable bridges. Colonel M'Donald, with the reſerve, purſued them for ſome time, and quickened their retreat. It is impoſſible for me to do full juſtice to the good conduct of the troops. Colonel Spencer, who commanded in the village of St. Martin's, defended his poſt with great ſpirit and judgment. Major-general Moore, who commanded on his right, and who was wounded, though I am happy to ſay, ſlightly, was no leſs judicious in the management of the troops under his command. The two battalions of the 20th regiment, poſted oppoſite to Krabendam and Zyper-Sluys, did credit to the high reputation which that regiment has always borne. Lieutenant-colonel Smyth, of that corps, who had the particular charge of that poſt, received a ſevere wound in his leg, which will deprive us for a time of his valuable ſervices. The two brigades

gades of guards repulſed, with great vigour, the column of French which had advanced to attack them, and where the ſlaughter of the enemy was great. I continue to receive every mark of zeal and intelligence from the officers compoſing the ſtaff of this army. It is difficult to ſtate with preciſion the loſs of the enemy, but it cannot be computed at leſs than 800 or 1000 men; while on our ſide it does not exceed, in killed, wounded, and miſſing, 200 men.

R. ABERCROMBIE.

Head-quarters, Scagenbrug, September 11th, 1799.

Return of killed, wounded and miſſing.

Thirty-ſeven rank and file killed; one Lieutenant-colonel, one Major, four captains, five ſubalterns, two ſerjeants, 131 rank and file, wounded: one ſerjeant, eighteen rank and file, miſſing.

Return of officers wounded.

Major-general Moore, Captain Halket of the 76th regiment, aid-du-camp to the commander in chief; Lieutenant Simpſon, of the royal artillery; Captain Nevill of the grenadier battalion of guards; Captain Nevill of the 1ſt battalion of the 3d regiment of guards; Lieutenant Gordon of the 2d battalion of the royals; Captain the honourable John Ramſay, of the 92d regiment of foot; Lieutenant-colonel Smyth, Major Roſs, Lieutenants Colborne, Dervoeux, Hamilton; Lieutenant and Adjutant South of the 1ſt battalion of the 20th regiment of foot; Captain-lieutenant Adams, of the 2d battalion of the 20th regiment of foot.

ALEXANDER HOPE.

Downing-ſtreet, September 19th, 1799.

A diſpatch, of which the following is a copy, was this morning received from Field-marſhal his royal highneſs the Duke of York, at the office of the right honourable Henry Dundas.

The

The Helder, North Holland, September 14th.

Sir,

I have to acquaint you with my arrival at this place, yeſterday evening, having ſailed from Deal on board the Amethyſt frigate, on Monday morning the 9th. Upon coming on ſhore I had great ſatisfaction in witneſſing the diſembarkation of eight battalions of Ruſſian auxiliary troops, conſiſting of 7,000 men, under the command of lieut. general D' Hermann, which had arrived from Revel in the courſe of the preceding day and yeſterday morning. I afterwards ſaw theſe troops towards the poſition occupied by the Britiſh, near Schagen; and I have great pleaſure in aſſuring you, that, from their appearance in every reſpect, the moſt happy conſequences may be expected from their co-operation with his Majeſty's arms in this country. Lieutenant-general D' Hermann ſeems to enter moſt heartily into our views; and I form very ſanguine hopes of receiving eſſential aſſiſtance from his zeal and experience. I underſtand that Sir Ralph Abercrombie has made you acquainted with his having repulſed the enemy in an attack made upon him on Tueſday laſt. I proceed immediately to join him at his quarters at Schagen. I have had the pleaſure to meet the hereditary Prince of Orange here. His ſerene highneſs is occupied in arranging into a corps a large body of deſerters from the Batavian army, and volunteers from the crews of the Dutch ſhips of war which have proceeded to England. Every aſſiſtance ſhall be afforded his ſerene highneſs to render theſe corps an efficient addition to our forces.

FREDERICK.

Downing-ſtreet, September 24th, 1799.

A diſpatch, of which the following is a copy, has been this day received from Field-marſhall his royal highneſs the Duke of York, by the right honourable Henry Dundas.

Head

Head-quarters Scagenbrug, September 20th.

Sir,

In my diſpatch of the 16th inſtant, I acquainted you with my intention of making an attack upon the whole of the enemy's poſition, the moment that the reinforcements joined. Upon the 19th, every neceſſary arrangement being made, the army moved forward in four principal columns, in the following order.

The left column under the command of Lieutenant-general Sir Ralph Abercrombie, conſiſting of two ſquadrons of the 18th light dragoons, Major-general, the Earl of Chatham's brigade, Major-general Moore's brigade, Major-general the Earl of Cavan's brigade, firſt battalion of Britiſh grenadiers of the line, the 23d and 55th regiments, under Colonel Macdonald, deſtined to turn the enemy's right, on the Zuider-Zee, marched at 6 o'clock of the evening of the 18th. The columns upon the right, the firſt commanded by Lieutenant-general Hermann, conſiſting of the 7th light dragoons, twelve battalions of Ruſſians, and Major-general Manner's brigade. The ſecond commanded by Lieutenant-general Dundas, conſiſting of two ſquadrons of the 11th light dragoons, two brigades of foot guards, and Major-general his highneſs Prince William's brigade. The third column commanded by Lieutenant-general Sir James Pulteney, conſiſting of two ſquadrons of the 11th light dragoons, Major-general Don's brigade, Major-general Coote's brigade, marched from the poſitions they occupied at day-break the morning of the 19th.

The object of the firſt column was to drive the enemy from the heights of Camperduyn, the villages under theſe heights, and finally to take poſſeſſion of Bergen. The ſecond was to force the enemy's poſition at Warmanhuyſen and Schoreldam, and to co-operate with the column under Lieutenant-general D'Hermann. The third to take poſſeſſion of Oude Carſpel at the head of the Lange Dyke, a great road leading to Alkmaar. It is neceſſary to obſerve, that the country in which we had to act, preſented in every direction, the moſt for-

midable obſtacles. The enemy upon their left, occupied to great advantage the high Sand-hills, which extend from the ſea in front of Petten to the town of Bergen, and were entrenched in the intermediate villages. The country over which the column under Lieutenant-general Dundas, and Sir James Pulteney had to move for the attack of the fortified poſts of Warmanhuyſen, Schoreldam, and the Lange Dyke, is a plain interſected every three or 400 yards by broad, deep, and wet ditches and canals. The bridges acroſs the only two or three roads which led to theſe places were deſtroyed, and abbatis were laid at different diſtances. Lieutenant-general D'Hermann's column commenced its attack, which was conducted with the greateſt ſpirit and gallantry, at half paſt three o'clock in the morning, and by eight had ſucceeded in ſo great a degree as to be in poſſeſſion of Bergen. In the wooded country which ſurrounds this village the principal force of the enemy was placed; and the Ruſſian troops, advancing with an intrepidity which overlooked the formidable reſiſtance with which they were to meet, had not retained that order which was neceſſary to preſerve the advantages they had gained, and they were, in conſequence, after a moſt vigorous reſiſtance, obliged to retire from Bergen, (where, I am much concerned to ſtate, Lieutenants-general D'Hermann and Tchertchekoff were made priſoners, the latter dangerouſly wounded,) and fell back upon Schorel, which village they were alſo forced to abandon, but which was immediately re-taken by Major-general Manner's brigade, notwithſtanding the heavy fire of the enemy. Here this brigade was immediately reinforced by two battalions of Ruſſians, which had co-operated with Lieutenant-general Dundas in the attack of Warmanhuyſen, by Major-general D'Oley's brigade of guards, and by the 35th regiment, under the command of his highneſs Prince William. The action was renewed by theſe troops for a conſiderable time with ſucceſs; but the entire want of ammunition on the part of the Ruſſians,

and

and the exhauſted ſtate of the whole corps engaged in that particular ſituation, obliged them to retire, which they did in good order, upon Petten and the Zyper-Sluys. As ſoon as it was ſufficiently light, the attack upon the village of Warmanhuyſen, where the enemy was ſtrongly poſted with cannon, was made by Lieutenant-general Dundas. Three battalions of Ruſſians, who formed a ſeparate corps, deſtined to co-operate from Krabendam in this attack, commanded by Major-general Sedmoratzky, very gallantly ſtormed the village on its left flank, while at the ſame time it was entered on the right by the 1ſt regiment of guards. The grenadier battalion of the guards had been previouſly detached to march upon Schoreldam, on the left of Lieutenant-general D'Hermann's column, as was the 3d regiment of guards, and the ſecond battalion of the 5th regiment, to keep up the communication with that under Lieutenant-general Sir James Pulteney. The remainder of Lieutenant-general Dundas's column, which, after taking poſſeſſion of Warmanhuyſen, had been joined by the firſt battalion of the 5th regiment, marched upon Schoreldam, which place they maintained, under a very heavy and galling fire, until the troops engaged on their right had retired at the concluſion of the action. The column under Lieutenant-general Sir James Pulteney proceeded to its object of attack at the time appointed, and, after overcoming the greateſt difficulties and the moſt determined oppoſition, carried by ſtorm the principal poſt of Oude-Carſpel, at the head of the Lange Dyke; upon which occaſion the 40th regiment, under the command of Colonel Spencer, embraced a favourable opportunity which preſented itſelf of diſtinguiſhing themſelves. This point was defended by the chief force of the Batavian army, under the command of General Daendaels. The circumſtances, however, which occurred on the right, rendered it impoſſible to profit by this brilliant exploit, which will ever reflect the higheſt credit on the general officers and troops engaged in it; and

made

made it neceſſary to withdraw Lieutenant-general Sir James Pulteney's column from the poſition which he had taken within a ſhort diſtance of Alkmaar. The ſame circumſtances led to the neceſſity of recalling the corps under Lieutenant-general Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who had proceeded without interruption to Hoorne, of which city he had taken poſſeſſion, together with its garriſon. The whole of the army has therefore re-occupied its former poſition.

The well-grounded hopes I had entertained of complete ſucceſs in this operation, and which were fully juſtified by the reſult of the three, and by the firſt ſucceſſes of the fourth attack upon the right, add to the great diſappointment I muſt naturally feel on this occaſion; but the circumſtances which have occurred I ſhould have conſidered of little importance, had I not to lament the loſs of many brave officers and ſoldiers, both of his Majeſty's and the Ruſſian troops, who have fallen. The gallantry diſplayed by the troops engaged, the ſpirit with which they ſurmounted every obſtacle which both nature and art oppoſed to them, and the cheerfulneſs with which they maintained the fatigues of an action, which laſted, without intermiſſion, from half paſt three o'clock in the morning, until five in the afternoon, are beyond my power to deſcribe or to extol. Their exertions fully entitle them to the admiration and gratitude of their King and country.

Having thus faithfully detailed the events of this firſt attack, and paid the tribute of regret to the diſtinguiſhed merit of thoſe who fell, I have much conſolation in being able to ſtate, that the efforts which have been made, although not crowned with ſucceſs, ſo far from militating againſt the general object of the campaign, promiſe to be highly uſeful to our future operations. The capture of ſixty officers, and upwards of 3,000 men, and the deſtruction of ſixteen pieces of cannon, with large ſupplies of ammunition, which the interſected nature of the country did not admit of being withdrawn, are convincing proofs that the loſs of the

the enemy in the field has been far ſuperior to our own; and, in addition to this, it is material to ſtate, that nearly 15,000 of the allied troops had unavoidably no ſhare in this action. In viewing the ſeveral circumſtances which occurred during this arduous day, I cannot avoid expreſſing my obligations to the Generals Dundas and Sir James Pulteney, for their able aſſiſtance; and alſo to mention my great ſatisfaction at the conduct of his royal highneſs Prince William, D'Oyley, Manners, Burrard, and Don, to whoſe ſpirited exertions the credit gained by the brigades they commanded is greatly to be imputed. Captain Sir Home Popham, and the ſeveral officers of my ſtaff, exerted themſelves to the utmoſt, and rendered me moſt eſſential ſervice. I feel alſo much indebted to the ſpirited conduct of a detachment of ſeamen, under the direction of Sir Home Popham, and Captain Godfrey of the navy, in the conduct of three gun-boats, each carrying one twelve pound carronade, which acted with conſiderable effect on the Alkmaar canal; nor muſt I omit expreſſing my acknowledgments to the Ruſſian major-generals Eſſen, Sedmoratzky and Schutorff.

I tranſmit herewith returns of the killed, wounded, and miſſing.

I am, ſir, yours,

FREDERICK.

P. S. Not having yet received returns of the loſs ſuſtained by the Ruſſian troops, I can only obſerve, that I underſtand their loſs in killed, wounded, and miſſing, amounts to near 1,500 men.

Total of the killed, wounded, and miſſing, in the action of the 19th.

One Lieutenant-colonel, two Captains, two ſubalterns, one ſtaff, two ſergeants, 109 rank and file, killed; ſeven Lieutenant-colonels, ſix Majors, fifteen Captains, fifteen ſubalterns, twenty ſergeants, two drummers,

mers, 345 rank and file, wounded; twenty-two ſergeants, five drummers. 463 rank and file, miſſing.

Return of officers killed, wounded, and taken priſoners.

Grenadier battalion of guards: Lieutenant-colonel Morris, and Captain Gunthorpe, killed; Colonel Wynyard, and Captain Neville, wounded; Lieutenant-colonel Dawkins, and Captain Forbes, wounded and taken priſoners; Captain Henry Wheatley, wounded; Enſign D'Oyley, wounded and taken priſoner.—Firſt battalion of the Coldſtream guards: Lieutenant-colonel Cunningham, wounded.—Firſt battalion of the 17th foot: Majors Grey and Cockburne, Captains Grace and Knight, Lieutenant Wilſon, and Enſign Thompſon, wounded.—Second battalion of the 17th foot: Major Wood, and Lieutenant Saunders, wounded.—Firſt battalion of the 40th foot: Enſign Elcomb, killed; Major Wingfield, Captains Dancer, Thompſon, Gear, and Myers, and Lieutenant Williams, wounded; Captain O'Donnel, miſſing.—Second battalion of the 40th foot; Captain Trollop, wounded, ſince dead; Captains Dancer and Thornton, and Lieutenant M'Pherſon, wounded.—Colonel Stephenſon, wounded; Lieutenant Harris, wounded, ſince dead.—Battalion of the 35th foot; Lieutenant-colonel Oſwald, and Major Hay, wounded; Major Petit, wounded and taken priſoner; Captain Manary, Enſigns Wilkinſon, Dean, and Jones, wounded.—Firſt battalion of the 9th foot: Quarter-maſter Holles, killed; Lieutenant Smith, wounded and taken priſoner; Lieutenants Grant and Rothwell, wounded.—Second battalion of the 9th foot: Captain Balfour, killed; Lieutenant-colonel Crew, wounded; Enſign French, wounded and taken priſoner; Enſign Butter, miſſing.—Fifty-ſixth regiment of foot: Captains King and Gilman, and Lieutenant Prater, wounded.

N. B. Lieutenant Roward, of the royal navy, wounded; four ſeamen killed; ſeven ſeamen wounded.

Three

Three hundred and fifty rank and file, of the firſt battalion of the 35th regiment, cannot be exactly accounted for, from the nature of the action, and from the regiment being ſent immediately to the Helder in charge of priſoners; but it is much feared that nearly 100 are killed, and the remainder wounded and miſſing.

Return of the royal artillery, received ſince the general return was cloſed.

Five gunners, four gunner drivers, and three additional gunners killed; firſt Lieutenant Elgie, wounded and taken priſoner; Volunteer John Douglas, wounded; eight gunners, ſix gunner drivers, and four additional gunners, wounded; ſeven gunners, and nine gunner driyers, miſſing.

ALEXANDER HOPE.

Downing-ſtreet, November 13th.

The following letter has been received by Lieutenant-colonel the honourable Alexander Hope, deputy Adjutant-general to the army lately ſerving in Holland, from Lieutenant-general Sir James Pulteney, Bart. and, by order of the commander in chief, tranſmitted to the right honourable Henry Dundas.

Swan Cutter, at ſea, November 20th.

Sir,

I have from time to time reported to you, for the information of his royal highneſs the commander in chief, the progreſs which had been made in the embarkation and departure of the Britiſh and Ruſſian troops which were left under my command, in the province of North Holland. I am now happy to acquaint you, that the laſt of them embarked yeſterday morning, when, the wind being fair, the whole ſhips of war and tranſports, remaining in the Texel, left that port.

Every thing belonging to the army was brought off, excepting a ſmall proportion of damaged proviſions, a few

few wagons, and about 300 draught horſes, of little value, for which there was no tonnage; of theſe the latter alone was ſaleable, but they bore ſo ſmall a price, that I thought it better to diſtribute the whole to the magiſtrates of the different villages in and near which the army had been cantoned, to be delivered to any of the inhabitants who might have ſuffered from the inevitable conſequences of war. Several large Dutch Indiamen, and other ſhips, which it was impoſſible for us to remove in their preſent ſtate, but which might have been fitted out as ſhips of war by the enemy, were completely diſabled, and rendered uſeleſs for any other purpoſe, through the exertions of a detachment of ſeamen, under the direction of Captain Boyar. The deſire of complying moſt ſtrictly with the articles of agreement entered into between his royal highneſs and General Brune, prevented their being blown up, which could not have been done without endangering the navigation of the Nieuve Diep. Vice-admiral Dickſon, as well as myſelf, made it our ſtudy to comply in this, as in every other inſtance, with the articles of the agreement, and muſt do the French general juſtice, that he ſeemed actuated by the ſame ſpirit. Previous to quitting the Helder, I had, in obedience to his royal highneſs's inſtructions, diſcharged every juſt demand of the inhabitants of the country which has been occupied by the army; and I was happy to find, that very few claims were brought forward beyond thoſe it was in my power to ſatisfy. The embarkation of the troops, difficult from the multiplicity of the arrangements required, was carried on with the utmoſt zeal and activity, by Vice-admiral Dickſon, and the officers and ſeamen under his command. I feel particularly indebted to Captain Lawford, of his Majeſty's ſhip Romney, who was left on ſhore, and had the immediate direction of the embarkation, for his exertions, and his attention to every branch of his Majeſty's ſervice; and to Captain Woodriffe, principal

agent

agent for the tranſport ſervice, for his great zeal in the execution of the duties of that ſituation.

JAMES PULTENEY.

P. S. Three armed veſſels have been left to cruize off the Texel, to give warning to any Britiſh ſhips, of our having evacuated the port. It was agreed by the French general, that if any ſhould arrive, previous to the expiration of the month, they ſhould, as matter of courſe, be allowed to depart.

Supplement to the account of the armiſtice concluded between his royal highneſs the Duke of York, and General Brune, publiſhed in the gazette of the 26th ult.

Head-quarters, Schagenbrug, October 15th.

General,

The late hour at which your letter reached me laſt night, prevented my ſending ſooner to Alkmaar, Major-general Knox, the officer alluded to in my letter of yeſterday's date. He is entirely in my confidence, and fully authoriſed to treat and conclude with you on the ſubject, reſpecting which he has received my inſtructions.

(Signed) FREDERICK.

To General Brune, commander in chief.

Head-quarters, Schagenbrug, October 15th.

By virtue of the authority, and in obedience to the order of his royal highneſs the Duke of York, Major-general Knox will have the honour of communicating with General Brune, and of ſtating to him;—that, in conſequence of the difficulties ariſing from the very unfavourable and unuſual ſtate of the weather at this ſeaſon, we have judged it expedient to re-occupy the poſition of the Zyp. That, in this ſituation, with cantonments amply adequate to the amount of our forces, having an uninterrupted and certain means of keeping up our

communication with England; and maſters as we are of the Helder, the Texel, the Zuyder-Zee, and the Ocean; it depends upon us, either to await the period when a favourable change of weather and of circumſtances may enable us to renew offenſive operations, or to withdraw our army by degrees, and without riſk, from this country, retaining poſſeſſion of ſuch detached points as might be judged moſt favourable for annoying the enemy, or for ſecuring real advantages to ourſelves. In the event of our recurring to this laſt mentioned meaſure, it will become our duty to neglect no means which can contribute to the preſervation of the brave troops entruſted to our care; and for this purpoſe, (however diſtreſſing, however ruinous to the inhabitants and to the country the alternative may be,) we ſhall be compelled to avail ourſelves of thoſe dreadful expedients which it is fully in our power to adopt.—Having perfectly at our diſpoſal the ſea-dykes, both towards the Ocean and the Zuyder-Zee, as well as the interior dykes, we ſhould in that caſe be reduced to the terrible neceſſity of inundating the whole country of North Holland; and of adding to this calamity every deſtructive evil which muſt neceſſarily reſult from an attempt to force or interrupt our retreat. We ſhould, under ſuch circumſtances, alſo be conſtrained to make uſe of the ample means we poſſeſs, of rendering the navigation of Zuyder-Zee henceforth impracticable, by obſtructing the Mars Diep, and deſtroying the Nieuve Diep—works upon which ſo many years labour, and ſuch immenſe ſums have been expended. Our ſyſtem of carrying on war having on all occaſions been governed by the moſt liberal principles, neceſſity, and the ſtrongeſt ſenſe of duty, could alone induce us to adopt a ſyſtem repugnant to the ſentiments which have ever directed the conduct of the Engliſh nation. From theſe conſiderations, and from our perſuaſion, that General Brune and the Dutch people muſt be actuated by ſimilar motives, and equally deſirous to prevent an uſeleſs effuſion of blood, by the amicable arrangement

rangement of a point which is perhaps the object of both parties, and from our anxiety, in caſe of a different reſult, to ſtand juſtified to the univerſe, from whatever deſtruction may in conſequence devolve upon this country. We propoſe and offer to General Brune, and to the Batavian republic, that the Engliſh and Ruſſian troops ſhall evacuate, before the end of November next, all the coaſts, the iſlands, and interior navigation, of Holland, without committing any act detrimental to the great ſources of its navigation, or laying the country under any inundations. For this purpoſe, that a ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities ſhall take place until the period above ſpecified;—that, during this interval, we ſhall remain in full poſſeſſion of all the points, and of the whole extent of country we occupy at this moment;—and, that the line of the reſpective advanced poſts ſhall alſo be that of ſeparation between the two armies; and that this line ſhall not, under any pretence, be paſſed by the troops of either, even in the event of our chooſing to retire from any part of our preſent poſition, or, of our quitting it altogether. That, during the abovementioned interval, no interference ſhall be allowed, nor any objections be ſtarted, with reſpect to the conduct of either of the parties within the limits of their reſpective poſſeſſions; and that all the rights of war, (every act of hoſtility excepted) ſhall continue mutually in force.—That we will grant to the perſons and property of the inhabitants of the country occupied by us, every protection conſiſtent with diſcipline, in the circumſtances under which we are placed, and all the advantages which the conduct generally obſerved by Britiſh troops entitles them to expect, on ſuch an occaſion.

If theſe propoſals accord with the wiſhes, and are conformable to the intention of General Brune, there can be no difficulty whatever in carrying them into execution within three days from the date hereof.

(Signed) H. Taylor, Secretary.

Equality.

Equality. Liberty.

Head-quarters at Alkmaar. October 15th, 1799, the 8th year of the French republic.

Brune, General in chief, to the Duke of York, commander in chief of the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army.

General,

Major-general Knox, who was inſtructed to confer with me on your part, upon the ſubject of a note which he has delivered, ſigned by your ſecretary, will communicate my anſwer, contained in an explanatory note.

Citizen BRUNE.

Articles propoſed in the Explanatory Note.

I. The Batavian fleet, which was ſurrendered to Admiral Mitchell by Admiral Storey, ſhall be reſtored to the Batavian republic, with its ſtores and crews. In caſe the Duke of York ſhall not be inveſted with ſufficient powers to comply with this article, his royal highneſs ſhall engage to obtain from his court an equivalent compenſation.

II. Fifteen thouſand priſoners of war, French and Batavians, detained in England, ſhall be unconditionally releaſed and ſent home.

III. The batteries and fort of the Helder ſhall be reſtored in the condition in which they were found at the period of the invaſion of the Engliſh and Ruſſian army.

IV. The army under the command of the Duke of York, ſhall, within forty-eight hours, evacuate the poſition of the Zyp.

V. The troops compoſing the Engliſh and Ruſſian army ſhall be embarked ſucceſſively and as ſpeedily as poſſible. All the Britiſh ſhipping ſhall quit the Texel, and all the Engliſh and Ruſſian troops be withdrawn from the ſeas, coaſts, and iſlands, of the Batavian republic, before the 20th of November next, and ſhall not damage the great ſources of navigation, or occaſion any inundation in the country.

VI.

VI. All ſhips of war, or other veſſels, having on board reinforcements for the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army, ſhall put to ſea as ſoon as poſſible, without landing the ſame.

VII. To guarantee the execution of theſe articles, hoſtages ſhall be given by the Duke of York, to be ſelected from amongſt the officers of rank in his army.

By order of General Brune, commander in chief of the combined French and Batavian army.

VEVRY, Secretary.

To thoſe requiſitions of General Brune, the Duke of York ſent the following anſwers.

Head-quarters, Schagenbrug, October 17th.

General,

I ſend back Major-general Knox, with my anſwers to the explanatory note, which he has delivered to me in your name. He is fully authoriſed to conclude, on my part, upon every point which relates to the ſubject of his miſſion.

FREDERICK, DUKE OF YORK.

To General Brune, commander in chief.

Anſwer to articles propoſed in the explanatory note from General Brune.

ART. I. His royal highneſs will on no account treat upon this article, the execution of which, it muſt be evident to both parties, is impoſſible.

II. This demand ſeems to reſt upon the ſuppoſed loſs the combined army muſt ſuſtain, ſhould its embarkation be reſolved upon. It is by no means admitted that ſuch would be the reſult; but as, in the event of the army's carrying on the campaign, during the winter, the loſs of a certain number of men muſt naturally be expected;—his royal highneſs, influenced by this conſideration, agrees to promiſe, in the name of the Britiſh government, that 5,000 French and Batavian priſoners,

ners, the proportion of each to be regulated according to the terms of the article, ſhall be unconditionally releaſed and ſent home.

III. The fort and batteries of the Helder will be left, generally conſidered, in an improved ſtate. None of the Dutch artillery ſhall be carried away.

IV. On no account will it be conſented, that the army ſhall be withdrawn from the poſition of the Zyp, until every preparation, requiſite to render its embarkation eaſy and complete, can be arranged at the Helder. It muſt be evident, that it cannot be deſirable that any delay ſhould take place in this reſpect. No addition ſhall be made to the works at the Zyp; and perſons properly authoriſed ſhall be admitted, from time to time, to aſcertain and report upon this point, for the ſatisfaction of General Brune; but no armed detachment will be permitted to approach, or to take poſt, nearer than they always are to our poſition. It muſt be farther underſtood, that, on his part, General Brune will not allow any approaches, or offenſive preparations, to be carried on, and that the French and Batavian army ſhall remain in the line of advanced poſts which it occupies at preſent, which ſhall be the line of ſeparation between the two armies reſpectively.

V. The embarkation of the Engliſh and Ruſſian troops, will take place with all poſſible expedition; and, at this ſeaſon of the year, any unneceſſary delay will naturally be avoided as much as poſſible; but, to prevent any difficulty or diſcuſſion on this point, it is propoſed, that the ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities ſhall be limited to the end of November next, in order to ſecure ſufficient time for the complete evacuation of the country, which, however, ſhall be ſooner, if practicable.

VI. The ſhips of war, or other veſſels, immediately expected with reinforcements for the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army, which may hereafter be ſent, ſhall not land their troops, but ſhall put to ſea again as ſoon as poſſible.

VII.

VII. Hoſtages ſhall be reciprocally given, to be ſelected among the officers of rank of the two armies, to guarantee the execution of this agreement.

By order of his royal highneſs the Duke of York, commander in chief of the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army.

H. TAYLOR, Secretary.

Alkmaar, October 17th.

Sir,

I have ſeen General Brune, and have talked over with him fully all the articles on which I have received his royal highneſs's inſtructions. I have found the greateſt diſpoſition on the part of General Brune, to enter fairly into the ſubject. In reſpect to the eſſential article of the fleet, General Brune has already received a letter from the Dutch directory, to make the delivery of it, a *ſine qua non* (i. e. *an abſolute condition*), and I much doubt whether there is any chance of his being brought to yield this point, at leaſt without ſome aſſurance that his royal highneſs would forward the demand to his court. In reſpect to the other very eſſential article of the priſoners, after much converſation I brought the General to lower his demands to 8,000 men, beyond which he cannot recede. Every other point can be amicably ſettled. I beg his royal highneſs's orders on theſe points; and I hope to receive them by noon to-morrow.

J. KNOX.

To the honourable Colonel Hope, Adjutant-general, &c.

Head-quarters Schagenbrug, October 18th.

Sir,

His royal highneſs the commander in chief, in his inſtructions to you of yeſterday's date, having declared, that every paper, or propoſal, from General Brune, and conſequently *that* relative to the whole of the Dutch fleet, will of courſe be regularly tranſmitted to England,

can

can give no other anſwer than what you are already empowered to make, viz. "His royal highneſs will on no account treat upon this article; the execution of which, it muſt be evident to both parties, is impoſſible." If General Brune expects any thing further to paſs on that ſubject, the ſooner the negociation is put an end to, the better. In regard to the number of priſoners, *if every other point is clearly, and immediately, decided upon*, his royal highneſs may be induced to relax; *if not*, it is unneceſſary to enter farther into the buſineſs; and he hereby directs you to finiſh the negociation.

(Signed) ALEXANDER HOPE.

To the honourable Major-general KNOX.

Aklmaar, October 18th, three P. M.

Sir,

I have received your letter, and have the pleaſure to inform you, that every thing is ſettled to the ſatisfaction of his royal highneſs; in conſequence of which General Brune has given immediate orders to all his poſts, that hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe, and that no farther work of any kind ſhall be carried on. He requeſts his royal highneſs will be pleaſed to give ſimilar orders without loſs of time, as a report has juſt been made, that ſome houſes have been ſet on fire, on the road leading to Herenhuyſen.

J. Knox.

To the honourable Colonel Hope, Adjutant-general, &c.

P. S. General Brune has ſent off to Amſterdam, to direct that nothing hoſtile ſhall be attempted on the part of the flotilla there fitted out; and he begs that ſimilar notice may be ſent to Admiral Mitchell.

Thus finiſhed this memorable expedition, the moſt conſiderable that has been attempted in modern times, and which ſeemed fitted, not only to change the form of government in Holland; but alſo, to have the moſt important

important conſequences, both with reſpect to the continuance of the war, and the political balance which a general peace might eſtabliſh in Europe; but which ſerved only to add a trophy to the other victories which the French had juſt then gained on other points of the extended theatre of the war, and to conſolidate more ſtrongly the government of the Batavian republic. The failure of this expedition, however, was the warm ſubject of diſcuſſion, both abroad and particularly at home.

The *intereſted* friends of government, although they ſeemed to feel ſore from the unexpected diſappointment; yet were loud in defence of the meaſure—alledging, that from the courage of the Britiſh commander and of his gallant troops nothing but ſucceſs was to be expected; but that the well known treachery of the Dutch, and the addictedneſs of the Ruſſians to intoxication, and for which Brune threw ample means in their way, by leaving hundreds of caſks of liquor behind him which they greedily and fatally ſeized, contributed to render the expedition abortive.—That the *paralyſing* clamours, of the oppoſition, while it depreſſed and diſpirited the allies, envigorated the exertions of the French and the republican party in Holland.

We have only to obſerve, that among the fatal conſequences of the expedition, many became dreſſed in ſables, being deprived of the pride and hopes of their families.

Though the invaſion of Holland was the cauſe, no doubt, of very great immediate calamity, eſpecially in that part of the country which was the theatre of war, it was, nevertheleſs, productive of advantage to the Batavian government. The proclamations of the Engliſh prejudiced greatly againſt even the partizans of the Stadtholder; for, however they might be perſonally attached to that Prince, yet when their loyalty came in competition with the love of their country, the latter eaſily preponderated; and they were particularly hurt at ſeeing no engagement on the part of the Britiſh go-

vernment to give up the Dutch colonies; as alſo the Stadtholder in the Duke of York's manifeſtoes held out as the legitimate Sovereign of Holland.

The Dutch, in general, were indignant at being conſidered the *ſubjects of an officer of the republic*, whoſe office they ſeveral times had found it convenient to ſuppreſs. From that moment, and more immediately on the capitulation, the party of the Stadtholder was no longer dangerous; and the country conſidered itſelf as for ever releaſed from the influence of the Britiſh cabinet. Another effect of this invaſion, ſtill more ſtriking, was the opportunity given for the diſplay of the energy of the Dutch, by arming themſelves for their own defence, the moſt effectual means of ſecuring their own liberty and independence, from the influence of any court or cabinet whatever.

It was then, by the defeat of the Engliſh and Ruſſian expedition, that Europe became acquainted with the treaty that had bound the Imperial and Britiſh cabinets, in its formation. By this treaty, the object of which was, as ſtated in the preamble, to reſtore the balance of Europe, and force back France to its ancient limits, the high contracting parties agreed to employ all their efforts to engage the King of Pruſſia to take an active part againſt the common enemy; and, that when his Pruſſian Majeſty ſhould have conſented to the meaſures propoſed, the Emperor of Ruſſia agreed to furniſh 45,000 men, infantry and cavalry, together with the neceſſary artillery. A copy of this famous treaty, ſo lofty and full of confidence of ſucceſs, we have already inſerted in our hiſtory.

The King of Pruſſia continued firm againſt every menace, and every perſuaſion to reſtore in this manner the balance of Europe; and after a long and obſtinate diplomatic war between the three cabinets, the Pruſſian court remained inflexible in its neutrality, by which meaſure the King diſplayed great political diſcernment, as by it, in the reſult, he has ſecured the moſt laſting and ſubſtantial advantages.

Having

Having made known his intentions, and the motives by which he was actuated, the Ruſſian Emperor alſo addreſſed a declaration to all the members of the Germanic empire, inviting them to unite their forces to his, in order to annihilate, in the moſt expeditious manner poſſible, their common enemy, on whoſe ruin they might eſtabliſh a ſtable repoſe for themſelves and their poſterity. He aſſured them, that if he ſaw them participate in his zeal, and rally around him, inſtead of ſlackening, he would redouble his efforts; nor would he ſheath his ſword till he had ſeen the *monſter* fall, which threatened to cruſh every *legitimate* authority; —but, that if he found himſelf abandoned, he declared, that he ſhould feel himſelf conſtrained to march his troops back to his ſtates, and quit a cauſe ſo badly ſupported, by thoſe who were moſt intereſted in its triumph.

In the interval of penning this notification at Peterſburg (September 15th), and its arrival to thoſe Princes to whom it was addreſſed, the triumphs of which Paul boaſted were changed into mournful defeats. Of the three Generals commanding his armies in the United Provinces, the Helvetic Cantons, and Italy, the former remained priſoner in the hands of the French, Korſakow had witneſſed the deſtruction of the greater part of his troops and the loſs of Switzerland, and Suwarrow himſelf, with difficulty eſcaped acroſs the mountains, with the wreck of his army, into the Griſons, overwhelmed with diſgrace at his misfortunes, infuriated, and venting impotent rage againſt the allies, to whom he attributed his reverſes, of which, with leſs pride, and more reflection, he might have diſcovered the real cauſe, not more in his own military incapacity, than in the ſkill and valour of the French who had hitherto felt his invincibility only in the ſuperiority of his numbers.

But although the Swiſs, on the right of the Reuſs and the Limmat, were not diſpleaſed at being releaſed from the domination of the Ruſſians, the re-entry of the French was accompanied by arbitrary acts, which diminiſhed

diminiſhed conſiderably the ſincerity of the welcome with which they were received by the inhabitants. A levy of 800,000 livres was impoſed, by the orders of Maſſena, on Zurich, and contributions in proviſions to half that ſum. It was pretended alſo, that the cannon, amounting to 140 pieces, on the ramparts, having been once in the poſſeſſion of the Ruſſians, were alſo a lawful prize. St. Gall was taxed at 400,000 livres, and ſome ſmaller towns in proportion. The Helvetic legiſlature, in paſſing a vote, that Maſſena, and the brave army which he commanded, had ſaved the country, were deeply offended at the act of ſovereignty which the French general had exerciſed at Zurich; and ſent a meſſage to the directory, to enquire what means they had taken to prevent the effect. Maſſena, diſregarding the remonſtrances of the Helvetic government, extended his demands, and levied a contribution of 800,000 livres on Baſil, by way of loan. The Helvetic government interpoſed in this affair, and ſent Bergoz, miniſter of foreign affairs, to proteſt againſt this meaſure, and forbid the payment till an anſwer had been received to remonſtrances which their government had made at Paris. The Helvetic ſenate approved and ſanctioned the meaſures of the executive directory. Zurich and St. Gall, threatened with military execution, paid in a part of the contribution. The repreſentations of the Helvetic directory to that of France, had produced no other effect, than an exhortation to comply, with a good grace, with the commands of the French general, who was blamed by them only for the moderation he had exerciſed towards the town of Baſil, whoſe contingent he immediately doubled. The General who commanded in that quarter, aſſembled twelve of the richeſt citizens, and notified to them, that he was ordered to take hoſtages till the loan was raiſed, to do which he gave them only twenty-four hours. A freſh refuſal on their part, of which the motive alledged was the order of their own government, led the General to order one of thoſe citizens to be

be conducted to the fortreſs of Huninguen. Againſt ſuch ſtrong meaſures no oppoſition could be made. Half the ſum was immediately counted. Berne, the ſeat of government, was occupied by 5,000 troops, who were quartered in the houſes of the inhabitants. Various were the conjectures which this ſtep occaſioned: the plan of breaking the councils and the directory, and putting the city in a ſtate of ſiege, ſeemed then the moſt probable.

There is no doubt but that the Helvetic government was indebted to the French for the expulſion of the Ruſſians; and, notwithſtanding the ſacrifices they had already made, they were prepared to make ſtill greater, as, indeed, the wants of the French army were extreme, and France had no immediate means of ſending the ſupplies. Baſil had alſo ſuffered leſs than any other town from the revolutionary robberies of the French, and had felt nothing of the horrors of the war. It was not, therefore, the ſum againſt which ſo much reſiſtance was made, but againſt the principle. Had the money been demanded from the Helvetic government, no oppoſition, probably, would have been made, conſidering the circumſtances in which the army was placed; but the compliance with the arbitrary requiſition of a French general was a formal and voluntary renunciation of their independence.

The Helvetic miniſter at Paris, Zeltner, and the miniſter of finances, ſent in their diſmiſſion: the ſecretary of the French legation at Berne, who, ſtruck with the injuſtice of his own government, had expreſſed himſelf warmly on the ſubject, was ordered to withdraw into France.

Though victory had again returned to the banners of the French, from thoſe of the foreign enemy, the weſtern country became every day more menacing to government. The inſurgents had been forced to evacuate Mans, on the appearance of the republican troops, after having pillaged it, and taken hoſtages; but now the inſurrection raged on all ſides; and

Nantes,

Nantes, the capital of the department of the Lower Loire, and Port Brieux, the capital of the department of the northern coaſts, were for a while in their poſſeſſion. From this latter place they did not retreat till they had emptied the public coffers, and alſo carried off the principal inhabitants as hoſtages.

The inſurrection had alſo acquired new ſtrength on the left of the Loire, the ſeat of the former Vendee. A regular chain had taken place from the weſtern coaſts, almoſt to the walls of Paris. The inſurgents parodied the acts of the departmental adminiſtrations; ſtuck up proclamations; printed and ſent orders to forbid the payment of taxes; made out liſts of conſcription; and aſſumed the title of the Royal and Catholic Army, propoſing to take poſſeſſion of the kingdom in the name of Louis XVIII. This royal and catholic army, which covered ſo immenſe a ſpace, was organized into five grand diviſions. The former province of Normandy, up to Paris, was under the orders of Trotte. Chatillon commanded Upper Brittany, and the Lower Anjou, Touraine, and the countries adjacent: Georges, all Lower Brittany, and chiefly the Morbihan. Georges was the only one of the Generals in chief who was roturier; but he had much influence, and conſiderable force; D'Autichamp, had a ſtill larger range; his command extended over the whole of the countries of the ſouth of the Loire, where the inſurrection had firſt taken its riſe, and where its ſeeds remained yet plentifully ſown.

It cannot have eſcaped the obſervation of our readers, that the Franch government had forfeited all claim to the title of patriots and friends of their country; and there was in their projects for the general ſafety, no nerve, no impulſe, in any proceeding, which indicated a remedy for the mighty evils which were every day encreaſing.—But a blow which had been long meditated, was now about to be ſtruck, which, whatever effect it might have on the general principles of the revolution, was intended to accelerate its concluſion by

cruſhing

cruſhing all oppoſition to the progreſs of government, and uniting, as far as was poſſible, the various contending parties.

The conſtitution, by which the republic was regulated, might, perhaps, have contained all the means of government, had it been adminiſtered by wiſe and virtuous men, or defended by a free and enlightened people. Thoſe who framed it had but ill calculated on the wiſdom of the one, and inflexibility of the other; and, under ſuch governors as the preſent, its ruin was almoſt inevitable. Sieyes was reſolved to ſave his country at all events.

The perſon on whom he fixed his view, as beſt fitted to carry his plan into execution, was General Joubert; but by the fall of that great officer, this part of the project failed. Sieyes, ſeeing that the evil was rapidly encreaſing, doubled his deſire to find a remedy; and it had nearly approached to its height when Bonaparte arrived in France. It is true, that at the time of his arrival, the Jacobin party had been overthrown, and the armies of the republic had been victorious; but the continuance of ſucceſs was far from being aſſured. The Jacobins might rally again, and the progreſs of the royaliſts in the weſt, formed ſomething of a counterbalance to the ſplendid victories which had diſencumbered the frontiers.

Nothing, therefore, could be more opportune for carrying the project of Sieyes into execution than the preſence of Bonaparte, and, perhaps, no union of talents was ever better fitted to project a revolutionary plan, and carry it into execution.

After mature deliberation and diſcuſſion, in which the ſoldier conducted himſelf as wily as the prieſt; the project, or ſo much of it as was neceſſary at that time to be diſcovered, was entruſted to twenty members of both councils, who aſſembled at the houſe of Lemercier, the preſident of the council of elders, in the morning of the 16th of Brumaire (November 17th), the day after a fete had been given to Bonaparte and Moreau,

Moreau, by the two councils, in the church of St. Sulpice.

In the conference at Lemercier's, the project of tranſlating the directory and councils to St. Cloud, was decreed; and it was agreed that this meaſure ſhould be propoſed by the commiſſion of inſpectors to the council of elders.—After taking an oath of ſecrecy, the twenty ſeparated, to inſtruct each ſuch of his friends on whom he could rely, and prepare them for this new criſis. Mean while, the proper officers were charged to form the plans of Jacobin conſpiracy, ready, if wanted for the occaſion, ſince the charge of conſpiracy on the party to be overthrown, is always an object of the firſt importance, whether true or falſe, in effecting a revolution. It was therefore ſettled by the members of the commiſſion of inſpectors, that as the Jacobin conſpiracies were ripe, and on the point of breaking out and overthrowing the government, there was no time to be loſt. The pretext was idle enough; but as the plan was decided on, further delay in any caſe was dangerous. The day following the firſt meeting, letters of convocation were addreſſed to the members of the council of elders, ſave ſuch as were known for exaggerated and jacobinical principles; and, at eight the next morning, the members who had been convoked, aſſembled at their uſual place of ſitting: the majority, ignorant of the cauſe of this unuſual convocation, were informed, by thoſe in the ſecret, of the vaſt conſpiracy that was formed, and adviſed them to the adoption of whatever meaſures ſhould be propoſed, to which, as the purpoſe was to ſhake off entirely the demagogical yoke, they were equally well inclined, and took the conſpiracy on truſt.

As ſoon as the aſſembly was formed, Cornet, one of the inſpectors, aſcended the tribune, made a repreſentation of the dangers which threatened the country, and concluded on the neceſſity of taking ſpeedy and effective meaſures for its deliverance.

He

He was followed by Regnier, whoſe ſpeech ſtruck ſtill greater terror into the minds of the uninitiated, and thoſe who were not in the ſecret of the plot;—from the ſtill livelier pictures which he drew of the audacious ruffians, and determined conſpirators, vomited out amongſt them from every part of the globe, that execrable foreign faction, the cauſe of all their misfortunes. When this ſalutary horror was raiſed to its greateſt height, he declared to them the remedy which had been prepared;—which was, the tranſporting the legiſlative body to a commune near Paris, where they might deliberate in ſecurity on the meaſures neceſſary for extricating the country at that alarming criſis; aſſuring them, at the ſame time, that General Bonaparte was ready to execute whatever decree he ſhould be charged with. The tranſlation of the council of elders to any other commune on their ſimple vote, was an article of the conſtitution; and it is remarkable that it was the only article furniſhed by Sieyes, who was a member of the commiſſion for forming it. Regnier therefore moved, that the council ſhould be transferred to St. Cloud: the diſcuſſion of other motions, propoſed by members of the council, was over-ruled, and the motion was carried by a great majority. It was further moved and carried, that this tranſlation ſhould take place on the following day;—that Bonaparte ſhould be charged with the execution, and take the neceſſary meaſures for the ſafety of the national repreſentation;—that he ſhould be called into the council to take the requiſite oaths, and that a meſſage, containing the reſolution of the council, ſhould be ſent to the directory, and to the council of five hundred.

As it was expedient to enter alſo into ſome explanation with the people, with reſpect to this extraordinary meaſure, an addreſs was propoſed, in which, after the right of ſuch a tranſlation had been ſtated, the motive alledged was the enchaining of the different factions, and the obtaining a ſpeedy peace both without and within, both of which were objects intereſting to the

people of Paris to induce them to keep quiet and peaceable, as they were enjoined, and who, moreover, had enthuſiaſtic confidence in Bonaparte, the perſon to whom the execution of the decree was entruſted.

Bonaparte obeyed the ſummons, and appeared at the bar of the council, where he accepted the charge; and, obſerving in his ſpeech, that as nothing in hiſtory bore any reſemblance to the end of the 18th century, ſo nothing at the end of the 18th century reſembled that moment, ſwore fidelity to the republic founded on true liberty, on civil liberty, and on national repreſentation. When this firſt part of the project was executed, the aſſembly broke up. The meſſage being read at the council of five hundred, the deputies who were not in the ſecret, or who favoured the Jacobin party, were ſtruck with aſtoniſhment, but made no obſervations; the remainder of the aſſembly reſted in hope and confidence; the law which had been paſſed at the elders was read, and the council adjourned, ſome among them crying, *Vive la Republique!* and others who had vague ſuſpicions of what was intended, extended their views further, and cried, *Vive la Conſtitution!*

The walls of Paris were inſtantly covered with proclamations, which, as the event had been foreſeen, were previouſly written and printed. In the firſt, Bonaparte informed the national guard of the meaſures taken by the council of elders; in the ſecond, he inſtructed the ſoldiers in the command which had been conferred upon him, inviting them to ſecond him with their accuſtomed energy, firmneſs, and courage; promiſing them that liberty, victory, and peace, ſhould again raiſe the republic to the rank which it held in Europe, and which ignorance and treaſon had almoſt brought to deſtruction. His addreſs to the officers of the national ſedentary guard, was ſtill more emphatical and explicit; to them he declared, that a new order of things was about to take place;—that the council of elders was going to ſave the republic, and that whoever dared to oppoſe it, ſhould periſh by the bayonet of

of the ſoldier. The moment of conferring the chief command on Bonaparte, and that of carrying it into execution by the diſplay of a vaſt military force, immediately followed each other. The garden of the Thuilleries was filled almoſt inſtantly with troops, amongſt whom were alſo the guards of the directory. The principal poſts in and about Paris, ſuch as the bridges, the Luxembourg, the hall of the council invalids, of five hundred, the military ſchool, the St. Cloud, and Verſailles, were entruſted to Marmont, Serrurier, Lannes, Macdonald, and other Generals who had figured with himſelf in affairs more hazardous, though not of more importance. Lefebre was his firſt Lieutenant: Angereau, who had hitherto mingled in the Jacobin party, came voluntarily and joined him.

This new arrangement had taken place before ſuch of the directors as were not in the ſecret were apprized of any attempts againſt their authority. Sieyes, and Roger Ducos, on receiving the meſſage from the elders, for which they were in waiting, repaired immediately to the commiſſion of inſpectors of the five hundred, and other perſons of influence, to whom the object of this meditated revolution had now been made known. Barras was the firſt of the three other directors who became acquainted with the change. He was invited to give in his reſignation, a propoſition which he indignantly received; but, recollecting himſelf, acknowledged the juſtice and neceſſity of the meaſure, without, however, yielding to the requiſition. Gohier, waking rather late in the morning, was ſurpriſed at finding the decree of the council of elders on his table. He repaired to the council-room of the directory, where Moulins met him, equally ignorant, as much ſurpriſed as himſelf. Their perplexity was encreaſed when, on enquiring for Sieyes and Ducos, they found that they had repaired to the Thuilleries, and that Barras refuſed to join in their deliberations. The ſecretary was then called to write the arrets they were about

about to form; but their aſtoniſhment was carried to its utmoſt on his informing them, that two members could not form a majority, and that of courſe it was impoſſible for him to fulfil the functions of his miniſtry.

The only reſource now left was that of military force, and Moulins gave orders to ſurround the houſe of Bonaparte. The danger of this ſtrong meaſure was ſuggeſted to him; but on his inſiſting that it ſhould be put in execution, it was diſcovered that the directorial guard had deſerted, and joined the troops in the Thuilleries. General Lefebre, ſummoned to appear before them, declined interfering in the buſineſs, ſince he was then under the orders of Bonaparte, on whom the council of elders had conferred the command. Of the inefficacy of every attempt they were ſoon convinced, by finding the directorial palace itſelf inveſted by a troop of ſoldiers. Moulins, who had been thoroughly initiated in revolutionary principles, did not wait to be arreſted, but, jumping out of the window, eſcaped acroſs the garden of the Luxembourg. Gohier repaired to the Thuilleries, where, as preſident to the directory, he put the ſeal to the decree of the tranſlation to St. Cloud, but perſiſted in not giving in his diſmiſſion, or reſigning the ſeal of ſtate; and returning to the palace of the directory, he was put under a guard.

Sieyes and Ducos reſigned their offices: ſoon after Barras, likewiſe, ſent in his reſignation by his ſecretary, who enquiring from Bonaparte what the ex-director had to expect from him, was ſternly anſwered, that he would have no further intercourſe with him; and, that he ſhould know how to make the authority reſpected which had been conferred on him. The ſequel of the anſwer was more generalized, and applied to others as well as Barras. "What have you done," exclaimed Bonaparte, "with that France which I left ſo flouriſhing? I left peace, and I find war;—victories, and I find defeats;—the millions of Italy, and find devaſtation and ruin! What are become of an hundred thouſand Frenchmen, my companions in glory?——

They

They have all periſhed!" Barras, informed of Bonapartes hoſtile diſpoſition towards him, prudently withdrew to the country, accompanied by an eſcort of cavalry, which, on his requeſt, the General ſent him for his perſonal ſafety.

The meaſures adopted for preſerving tranquillity in the capital had been more than ſufficient. The city was in the moſt perfect calm, and a general ſatisfaction reigned throughout, from the perſuaſion that the reſult could not be otherwiſe than good. The committees of inſpectors, with the ex-directors, Sieyes and Ducos, paſſed the night at the Thuilleries to prepare meaſures for the ſitting at St. Cloud, whither the legiſlature repaired the following day according to the decree. The council of elders aſſembled in the chamber called the Gallery: the council of five hundred occupied the Orangery which opened on the garden. The village was filled with troops; but the perſons whom curioſity or intereſt had drawn thither, were, contrary to all expectation, but few in number. The council of five hundred opened its ſitting at two in the afternoon, when Guadin, after a rapid ſurvey of the dangers which threatened the country, moved, that a commiſſion of ſeven members ſhould be choſen, who ſhould be charged to make a report on the actual ſituation of the ſtate; and, at the ſame time, propoſe ſuch meaſures as ſhould be deemed neceſſary for the public intereſt. He moved alſo, that the councils ſhould ſuſpend all deliberations till the report was preſented.

The report had, in truth, already been fabricated at the Thuilleries, and one of the meaſures to be propoſed is ſtated to have been the arreſt of ſixty of the deputies of the violent party. It had been concluded that this motion would have paſſed without difficulty, and that thoſe againſt whom it was principally directed would abſent themſelves from the meeting, knowing that the tranſlation boded nothing favourable towards them. It had been ſuggeſted by thoſe better acquainted with the tenacity of that party, to exclude them from the aſſembly

aſſembly on their preſenting themſelves at the palace; but this advice, which it would have been wiſe in the preſent circumſtance to follow, was over-ruled by Bonaparte, who, ignorant of the manœuvres of the party in deliberations, or rather in the art of preventing deliberations, thought the majority in the council was ſufficient to awe the reſt into ſilence. He was deceived, however, in his calculation; for, no ſooner had Gauden finiſhed his ſpeech, than the Jacobin members began to vociferate, "Down with the dictators, and long live the conſtitution!" Some moving for a meſſage to the council of elders, to know the motives of the tranſlation; others for the renewal of the oath to the conſtitution.

After the firſt tumult had ceaſed, the propoſition for the renewal of the oath was formally made by Grandmaiſon, and carried by acclamation, the whole of the members riſing and exclaiming, "Vive la Conſtitution!" No objection, therefore, being made againſt re-taking the oath of fidelity to the conſtitution, thoſe who were initiated in the ſecret, who had the report in their pockets, the immediate tendency of which was to overthrow it, were compelled to follow the torrent, and mount, in their turn, the tribune to commit this act of political perjury. Violations of this oath, however, had been ſo long claſſed with remiſſible ſins, that no one choſe at that moment to hazard the refuſal; but it was not difficult to perceive by the tones of the deputies, as they repeated the oath, the degree of ſincerity they attached to the ceremony, the Jacobins laying particular emphaſis on the words—"reſiſtance to every kind of tyranny," while the moderate party who were now more or leſs initiated into the ſecret, rehearſed their parts with marks of contempt or indifference. This ceremony, however, which took up nearly two hours, diſconcerted part of the plan. When the ſwearing was finiſhed, the ſecretary read a letter from a member who ſent in his reſignation, and two meſſages from the council of elders, informing

informing the council of five hundred of their being inſtalled, and of their ſuſpending their deliberations till they received ſimilar information from themſelves. A motion was next made and adopted for an addreſs to the French people to inform them of the inſtallation of the council of St. Cloud, as was alſo another motion, that notice of the ſame event ſhould be ſent to the directory, notwithſtanding the ironical obſervations made by certain members reſpecting the difficulty at the moment of finding the addreſs.

Hitherto the advantage of debate in the council of five hundred had been on the ſide of the Jacobin party; the motion for enquiring into the ſtate of the nation, or rather for the overthrow of the exiſting conſtitution, had been ſet aſide by the new oath of fidelity—the council of elders had opened their aſſembly in the palace, and ſat as if uncertain what motive had brought them together; when Bonaparte, who was in an adjoining room with the committee of inſpectors, with Sieyes, Ducos, and ſeveral officers of rank, preſented himſelf at the bar of the council to preſs them to accelerate the meaſures neceſſary for the ſafety of the country. He began his ſpeech by interrogations, and, alluding to the proceedings in the other council reſpecting the calumnies againſt the military, by which ſeveral of its members ſeemed deſirous of obſtructing the march which the council of elders had begun, aſked, "if the blood they had ſhed in ſo many fields of battle was not a ſufficient warrant of their devotedneſs to the republic? And if thoſe who were for ever ſharpening their poignards againſt them had given ſuch proofs of attachment to its cauſe? The moſt dangerous of the conſpiracies of which they talked, (he obſerved) was that of the public miſery, which every where ſurrounded them, and which was continually encreaſing. Let each examine himſelf, and ſay to whom the crime ought to be imputed? Was it wiſe to let the republic periſh amidſt ſo general a diſorganiſation, or ſee the armies covered with laurels, melting away by the horrors of famine, or remain

remain a prey to every kind of want? Had not ignorance, folly, and treaſon, held long enough their extended empire? Had they not committed ravages enough on the country? What claſs had not been their victims? Had not the French been long enough divided into parties, or rather into battalions, hoſtile to each other, and become the mutual and perſevering oppreſſors of each other."

Of this humiliating picture every one acknowledged the likeneſs.—After this exordium, Bonaparte continued:—"The time for putting an end to theſe diſaſters is now come. You have charged me to preſent you with the means, and I will not betray your confidence. Had I had perſonal projects, or views of uſurpation, I ſhould not have waited till this day to realize them. Before my departure and ſince my return, I have been ſolicited by the leaders of the reſpective parties to take poſſeſſion of the authority. I could make diſcoveries which would inſtantly confound the greater part of my calumniators. I have been urged by thoſe who call themſelves excluſive patriots, to deſtroy the conſtitution, to purify the councils, and exclude men who ſincerely love their country. I have rejected ſuch overtures, becauſe liberty is dear to me, and becauſe it is unworthy of my character to ſerve any *coterie*, any faction—my ſervices are due to the French people alone. I have made known theſe projects to ſeveral repreſentatives. I have united my ſentiments with thoſe of the council of elders. I have accepted the command which they have entruſted to me, only to lay it down when this neceſſary criſis ſhall be paſt. Let us not be divided; aſſociate your wiſdom and your firmneſs to the force that ſurrounds me. I will be nothing but the devoted arm of the republic."

Such was the progreſs and the ſubſtance of Bonaparte's artful harangue, when a member, anxious to puſh the General to the full confeſſion of his political faith, and to round the laſt period exclaimed,—"And of the conſtitution!" This was the moſt unharmonious chord

chord that could have been touched; the word conſtitution was in perfect diſunion with every part of the project, and the proceeding.

"The conſtitution!" reſumed Bonaparte with vivacity; "Does it become you to invoke the conſtitution? Is it any thing elſe at preſent than a ruin? Has it not been ſucceſſively the ſport of every party? Is it not in the name of the conſtitution that you have organized every kind of tyranny ſince it has exiſted? To whom can it ſerve hereafter as a guarantee? Is not its inſufficiency atteſted by the numerous outrages which have been committed againſt it, even by thoſe who are pretending at this very moment to ſwear a mockery of fidelity towards it. The rights of the people have been atrociouſly violated, and it is in order to re-eſtabliſh thoſe rights on an immutable baſis, that we ought to labour inſtantly to conſolidate in France both liberty and the republic."

Bonaparte, in denouncing the conſpiracy, had co-operated thus far in the plan of the inconſtitutionals, who had more extended projects than thoſe of arreſting the attention of the councils on the guilty individuals; but the obſervations reſpecting the conſtitution, were judged premature. Cornudet, a member of the commiſſion, who ſaw the danger, as ſoon as he could ſtop the General's impetuoſity, which was hurrying him on to diſcoveries more prudent to keep concealed, generalized what he had ſaid reſpecting conſpirators and conſpiracies; and ſtated, that, from what had already been ſaid, no doubt could be entertained of the reality of their exiſtence, and that he himſelf had taken an active part in the meaſures of public ſafety which were then propoſing, from the intimate knowledge which he had of the criminal propoſitions made to Bonaparte, and of the projects connected with them; but that if a further explanation were to be entered into on theſe points, the council ought to form itſelf in a ſecret committee.

As ſoon as the council had agreed to this motion, and before it could be put in execution. Bonaparte, too anxious for the event to heed the means, and too much heated by the oppoſition of the council of five hundred to notice the precautions by which his friends were deſirous of bringing about the *denouement (the looſing the knot)*, addreſſed the council a ſecond time, relative to the conſpiracies, and then turned his obſervations on himſelf, inviting the friends of liberty to direct their poignards towards his boſom if he even violated any of its principles. "And you, my comrades," turning himſelf to the guard, "may the bayonets with which we have triumphed together, if I am ever guilty of ſuch perfidy, be pointed againſt my own heart; but alſo, if any perſon, the vile ſtipendiary of foreign powers, dare pronounce againſt your General, the words *Hors la loi (without the law)*, may the thunder of war inſtantly cruſh him—remember that I march accompanied by the god of war, (ſurely not at St John d'Acre,) and the divinity of fortune." The latter part of this inflated harangue was received with murmurs, and of which the General regretted that he had uſed the expreſſion. While ſome of the council firmly demanded of him to name the conſpirators, Bonaparte, with the ſame alacrity as the demand had been made, returned for anſwer, "that each had his particular views, his plans, and his coterie. Barras and Moulins had theirs, and had made him propoſitions." The General had proceeded thus far, when the cries for the ſecret committee interrupted him; but the whole had now been ſaid; the conſpiracy againſt the conſtitution, by the Jacobin party on the one hand, and the plan for immediately overturning it by the moderate party on the other, were now openly avowed; the motion, therefore, for forming the ſecret committee was negatived after a ſhort diſcuſſion, in which it was alledged, that further ſecrecy was uſeleſs, and in which reproaches againſt the commiſſion of inſpectors, for not giving earlier intelligences of thoſe conſpiracies, were anſwered by exculpations

pations of the commiſſion, whoſe ſilence had been founded on wiſe and prudent motives.

The council having determined to continue its ſitting, and the General being called on to finiſh his harangue, continued, "Since my arrival, every magiſtrate, and every public functionary, with whom I have converſed, have given me the moſt perfect conviction, that the conſtitution, ſo often violated, and continually diſregarded, is on the brink of ruin; that it offers no guarantee to the French, becauſe it has no diapaſon. Every faction is perſuaded of this truth, and each is diſpoſed to take advantage of the fall of the preſent government;—all have had recourſe to me; all have been anxious to gain me over to their reſpective intereſts. I have thought it my duty to join myſelf to the council of elders alone, the firſt body of the republic. I repeat, that this council cannot take too ſpeedy meaſures, if it be deſirous to ſtop the movement, which in a moment, perhaps, may deſtroy liberty. Recollect yourſelves, citizens repreſentatives, I have juſt ſpoken openly truths which no one has ventured to whiſper. The means of ſaving the country are in your hands. If you heſitate to make uſe of them, if liberty periſh, you will be accountable for its deſtruction towards the world, towards poſterity, towards your families, and towards France."

Having finiſhed his ſpeech, Bonaparte withdrew, leaving the council to deliberate on what had been ſaid, and who began a debate, ſince the queſtion was now brought fully forward, reſpecting the merit and demerit of the conſtitution. The council of five hundred having finiſhed taking the oath, were diſcuſſing with great warmth on the mode of electing a ſucceſſor to Barras, when Bonaparte preſented himſelf at the door of the aſſembly, accompanied by a few officers and ſoldiers without arms. He advanced a few paces into the room, as if wiſhing to addreſs the council, when he was aſſailed in an inſtant by cries from different parts of the chamber of, "Down with the tyrant! Out of the law! Down with the dictator! kill him! kill him!" The

vehemence

vehemence of the members who uſed theſe invectives was not confined to words Several ſtarted from their ſeats and ruſhed towards the door, imprecating vengeance, and making uſe of menacing geſticulations. Bonaparte ſtood ſpeechleſs, but the officers and grenadiers who were behind him, imagining him to be in danger, gathered round him, and forced him out of the room, pale and trembling with ſuffocated paſſion, into the veſtible.

The preſence of Bonaparte in the council of five hundred, had blown up into a flame the rage which had hitherto only been ſmothered, nor did his abſence tend to allay it. As ſoon as he was gone, the preſident, who was Lucien his favourite brother, was apoſtrophiſed in nearly the ſame language as had been uſed towards the General himſelf. He left the chair, and deſcending to the tribune, as ſoon as he could make his voice heard, obſerved, that after the ſervices rendered by his brother to the republic, it was abominable to ſuppoſe that he entertained any views hoſtile to liberty. He urged, that no Frenchman had given greater pledges of his attachment to the republic. He added, that the General, no doubt, came to give ſome important information relative to the preſent circumſtances, and demanded that he ſhould be called to the bar to give an account of his motives. He could be heard no more; his voice was drowned in the tumult; the aſſembly ſeemed a chaos; numberleſs motions ſucceeded each other; ſome for breaking the decree of the elders by which Bonaparte was named General; others for leaving St. Cloud, and repairing again to Paris; others for naming another General to take the command of all the troops, who ſhould be named the guard of the councils; ſome apoſtrophiſed the ſoldiers who remained at the door; others continued their invectives againſt the preſident, Lucien, who ſeeing the tumult encreaſe rather than abate, after attempting in vain to ſpeak, imploring the aſſembly to hear him, while tears rolled down his cheeks, he threw off his robe of diſtinction, and

and laying it on the table, declared, that he hereby diveſted himſelf of his preſidency.

This act only ſerved to raiſe the Jacobin party to a higher pitch of exaſperation; ſeveral members of this faction had now gathered about him, and ſome among them preſented piſtols, as if to compel him to reſume his robe.

It was in the midſt of this laſt act of diſorder that ſome grenadiers, ſent by Bonaparte, who had been informed of the perilous ſituation of his brother, the preſident, preſented themſelves at the tribune, and placing him between them, conducted him in ſafety to the court of the palace. The confuſion in the council redoubled at this new incident. The Jacobin party were infuriated to madneſs;—motions and ſpeeches, the moſt incongruous, ſucceeded each other with the volubility of lightning. The moderate party which had hitherto remained tranquil ſpectators, waiting the event, judging from the violence of others, who did not ceaſe crying, "Out of the law!" and being totally ignorant of what was paſſing without, concluded that Bonaparte had really been decreed an *outlaw*, or had been murdered, and that the ſoldiers had come to arreſt the preſident, in order to do ſimilar execution.

Lucien found his brother, the General, in the court of the palace, who had harangued the ſoldiers, and informed them of his reception, and the attempt which had been made to aſſaſſinate him. He added, "that more than thirty of the factious members had raiſed their poignards againſt him, and had threatened to put him out of the law—him," he added in a lofty tone, "whom the combined Kings of Europe had been unable to reach with their armies." That ſuch menace had been made, and threats of violence uſed, is true; but it does not appear that any weapon, as he repreſented, was actually raiſed againſt his life. The ſoldiers heard him with intereſt and attention; all ſeemed diſpoſed to ſerve him, but none moved forward to offer themſelves as his avengers; nor was it certain that they

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would have marched againſt the legiſlative body, even had Bonaparte given them poſitive orders. But the preſence of the preſident, who now mounted on horſe-back, and addreſſed them, encreaſed, and legalized, in ſome meaſure, their diſpoſitions in favour of the General. Lucien Bonaparte, in an animated tone, informed them, that the immenſe majority of the council was, at the moment he was ſpeaking, under terror from a few repreſentatives armed with poignards, who were beſieging the tribune, and threatening their colleagues with death; that theſe deſperate ruffians had put themſelves in rebellion againſt the council of the elders, and had dared to menace with outlawry the General who was charged with the execution of their decree. He declared at the ſame time, that it was thoſe furious men who had virtually put themſelves out of the law by their attempts againſt the liberty of the council; that he confided to the warriors to whom he ſpoke, the care of delivering the majority of their repreſentatives from the oppreſſion they were under, in order that they might deliberate peaceably on the deſtiny of the republic. "General, (exclaimed Lucien) and you ſoldiers, you will acknowledge as legiſlators of France none but ſuch as ſhall rally around me; as for thoſe who remain in the Orangery, let force expel them; theſe ruffians are no longer repreſentatives of the people, but repreſentatives of the poignard." Lucien terminated his harangue with crying, "Long live the republic!"—which was repeated by the ſoldiers and all the by-ſtanders.

This ſpeech of the preſident of the council, had created ſtronger emotions, and furniſhed more determined motives to the ſoldiers than that of the General. In the firſt caſe they had ſome doubts whether they might not have become accomplices in a rebellion; they now found, or ſeemed to find, from the harangue of the preſident, that they were called on to ſuppreſs a rebellion. Bonaparte finding this new alacrity, and having received the ſanction of the preſident, ordered a corps of grenadiers to march forward, and he was inſtantly obeyed.

obeyed. The council was at that moment liſtening to a motion for the recall of the preſident to the chair, in order to take ſome ſpeedy meaſures, when the voice of the ſpeaker was drowned in the ſound of the drums. The ſpectators inſtantly ruſhed out of the doors and windows. The deputies roſe up, and the great majority of them exclaimed, "Long live the republic!" others, "Long live the conſtitution!" The ſoldiers entered the hall carrying their arms, and halted. A chief of brigade of cavalry invited the repreſentatives to withdraw, declaring that he would not be reſponſible for their ſafety. Numbers of deputies inſtantly yielded to the invitation;—an officer, ſeeing the reſt to heſitate, mounted the tribune and exclaimed, "Repreſentatives withdraw—the General has given the order!" The conſtitutionaliſts ſtood firm, and began to addreſs the ſoldiers, when another officer cried out, "Grenadiers forward!" The *pas-de charge (the ſtep to the charge)* was inſtantly renewed, and the ſoldiers, preſenting their bayonets, advanced; the deputies finding further reſiſtance ineffectual, and prudently judging that the bayonets and orders of an exaſperated General were not to be trifled with, withdrew from the Orangery into the garden, leaving the military maſters of the place.

A momentary conſternation filled Paris, upon receiving the firſt news of this event, by which a military force had diſſolved the legiſlative body of the republic; but no ſooner were the circumſtances of this violation made known, than regret was abſorbed in general gratulation, and the violence of the meaſure excuſed, while by many it was applauded.—The Jacobin party were overwhelmed with confuſion at ſeeing themſelves the dupes of their own intemperate and impolitic rage, eſpecially when they found that a reſiſtance more dignified, and on their own ſide, had taken place at the council of elders. When Bonaparte had withdrawn from the chamber of this council, after declaring the end of the preſent convocation, a debate on the propoſition for ſetting aſide the conſtitution was opened, and

a member, highly reſpectable for his patriotiſm, after paying a juſt tribute to the intentions of the General, and the neceſſity of remedying the evils complained of, declared his attachment to the conſtitution, in which he aſſerted remedies adequate to the evils felt and feared might be found. He concluded by ſtating, that he was acquainted with the motion that had been adopted in the other council, of ſwearing fidelity to the preſent conſtitution, and moved, that the renewal of that oath which he himſelf then took, ſhould be made by the council of elders. A coalition, of conſequence, between the two councils would have been fatal to the projected revolution, and news fabricated for the purpoſe of an inſurrection in the Fauxbourgs of Paris, in favour of the Jacobins, and alſo of their march towards St. Cloud, was anſwered with becoming energy by the council, "that they ſhould know how to reſiſt it."

Cornudet, a member of the commiſſion of inſpectors, replied to Dalphonſe, the laſt ſpeaker, by recapitulating the various violations of the conſtitution which had taken place; and, by aſſerting its inſufficiency to heal the wounds which had been opened. He invoked the previous queſtion on the motion for renewing the oath, for which he found an excuſe, as well as for the multitude of vain oaths that had been taken, in the neceſſity in which they had been placed of making, or becoming the victims of a new mutilation. The motion for renewing of the oath, was ſupported by another member, who repeated the arguments of the former, and inſiſted with greater energy againſt any violation of the conſtitution. The preſident of the council was about to ſpeak in reply, when news was brought of the appearance of Bonaparte in the council of five hundred, and of the violence which had been exerciſed againſt his perſon, particularly of the attempt which had been made to poignard him, by a deputy of the name of Arena. The member who gave the houſe the information, brought alſo a meſſage from the General, praying the council of elders to take the lead, ſince every delay would

would be fatal. Curtois, the member in queſtion, propoſed, therefore, that the council ſhould form itſelf into a ſecret committee. It was while the General was haranguing the ſoldiers in the court of the palace, that the preſident of the council of elders, Le Brune, was replying to the arguments of the ſpeakers who propoſed the renewal of the oath. He was proceeding to diſtinguiſh between the ſocial compact, the ſovereignty of the people, the unity and indiviſibility of the republic, the fundamental principles of liberty, and the conſtitution, which he inſiſted was only a ſeries of reglementary articles built upon it, when his ſpeech was interrupted by the beating of drums, and ſhouts from the court of the palace, occaſioned by the expedition againſt the factious minority of the five hundred.

The council, nevertheleſs, formed itſelf into a ſecret committee, and was proceeding with its deliberations, when it was interrupted by the arrival of a deputy from the Orangery, who proclaimed the outrage committed on the national repreſentation, and the diſſolution of the council of five hundred by military force. He was followed by the preſident of the council, who declared that the information juſt given was an impoſture; that the aſſaſſins armed with poignards were not worthy of the name of repreſentatives, that they had attempted the life of their preſident, and, (ignorant himſelf of the ſucceſs of the expedition) that they were ſtill tyrannizing over the majority of the council, which held firmly to that of the majority of that of the elders, and to whatever meaſures they ſhould propoſe. Another member of the council of five hundred offering to reply, the council determined to hear none but thoſe of their own body. During the ſtruggle between Bonaparte and the five hundred, and while the council of elders was in ſecret committee, a commiſſion compoſed of five members had prepared a report; this ſtruggle being now ended, the commiſſion came forward, and preſented their report to the committee, in which, after ſtating that the council was become the organ of the nation,

and, from what had juſt paſſed, the whole of the national repreſentation, that it was their duty, as they had alſo the power to provide means for the ſafety of the country and of liberty; that the executive power exiſted no longer, ſince military authority was only a means of the executive power, eſſentially civil; and propoſed, that as four members had given in their diſmiſſion, and the other was under arreſt, an executive proviſionary commiſſion, compoſed of three members, ſhould be named.—This decree was adopted, and the aſſembly continued ſitting till nine in the evening.

There is no doubt but, under the exiſting circumſtances, that the council of elders might have taken on itſelf the whole of the future proceedings; nevertheleſs it was deſirable to gather up the wrecks of the five hundred, in order to give their proceeding a more legal form.—Theſe aſſembled in the evening, and joined themſelves to the commiſſion to form a council, and reſume the deliberations. The aſſembly opened at the time appointed by the decree of the elders, under the preſidency of Lucien Bonaparte. As ſoon as they had given notice of their re-union to the other council, Berenger aroſe and ſtated, that the enemies of the people had committed their laſt crime; that, if Bonaparte had been killed, his aſſaſſination would have been the ſignal of that of the repreſentatives, who were then at their poſt; that his death would have delivered up France to its executioners, opened the frontiers to the coalition, kindled civil war, and effectuated the annihilation of the republican name; and after declaring, that the day on which the decree which he was about to propoſe ſhould paſs, was to be the period whence would be dated the ſovereignty of the people, of liberty, happineſs, and peace, it would be from that period that the reign of humanity and juſtice would commence. He moved, that ſome tribute of gratitude ſhould be paid to Bonaparte, to the Generals and the military under his command, for having ſaved the majority of the legiſlative body, and the republic, from a minority

minority compoſed of aſſaſſins. This propoſition was adopted, and the thanks of the aſſembly was voted to General Bonaparte, and to the Generals, officers, and ſoldiers, who acted under his command.

But it was not ſufficient to have conquered—it was equally urgent to improve the victory. Chazal preſented a project of a reſolution which was ordered to be ſent to a ſpecial commiſſion of five members, who were to make a report during the ſitting. While this report was preparing, Lucien Bonaparte deſcended from the chair to the tribune, and in an animated and eloquent diſcourſe, painted the diſaſters of the republic in every part of its adminiſtration. "If there be no longer any confidence," exclaimed he, "there are no longer any reſources, no more force, no longer harmony in the government; hence uncertainty and the rage of inteſtine war throughout the land; no guarantee for foreign powers, and no means of attaining peace. This former palace of kings, where we ſit in this ſolemn night, atteſts that power is nothing, and that glory is every thing. Let us deliberate in all the freedom of our ſouls on the ſtate of our country. If we are unworthy of being the firſt people on the earth; if by puſillanimous conſiderations, we do not extricate ourſelves from the horrible ſtate in which we are plunged; if we betray the hopes of our country, we loſe our glory, nor ſhall we long retain our power; ſince, as the meaſure of our calamities ſhall encreaſe, in the ſame proportion will encreaſe the indignation of the people." He repreſented the vanquiſhed party as burning to ſpread a ſecond time their horrible domination over the affrighted land, heedleſs of the conſtitution, placed as a barrier to arreſt them, and which now they held forth as an invincible obſtacle, only when a queſtion ariſes of giving happineſs and peace to the country. Changing always their maſks, their figure, he repreſented as continually the ſame figure of crime, but that the preſent moment was about to unmaſk them for ever. "If we heſitate to-day," added he, "we are the veriеſt of cowards: as

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for my individual part, I bluſhed at wearing ſo long the robe, when the clamours and poignards of a few factious men ſtifled, within theſe walls, the cries of 30,000,000 who are aſking for peace. I ſhould bluſh ſtill deeper at having reſumed it, if, delivered from the yoke of theſe demagogical aſſaſſins, you ſhould heſitate in this deciſive ſitting, or draw back from ſecuring the ſalvation of your country."

The preſident's ſpeech was interrupted at ſeveral times by applauſes, which ſufficiently indicated the change of politics which had taken place in the chamber ſince the firſt aſſembly in the morning, and he continued to harangue the council, giving due developement to his ſubject, till the reporter of the commiſſion appeared.

As the events of the former part of the day had given the reformers fairer ſcope for unfolding their project, the interval between the firſt and ſecond meeting had been filled up by them with ſtronger amendments, without changing much the original plan, which Boulay now detailed.—After having painted in odious colours the conduct of the late directors, he told the council, "that perſonal ſecurity was violated every inſtant, property uncertain, private tranſactions, commerce, the uſeful arts, in a ſtate of alarming ſtagnation; confidence annihilated, the people tormented in every mode, and their miſery carried to ſuch an exceſs, that they dared ſcarcely to complain, and that thoſe who ſaw the cauſes of thoſe evils feared either to make them known or to point out the remedies."

"If therefore," the orator added, "the preſent ſtate of things can no longer ſubſiſt, we muſt *deſtroy it*, and *replace* it by another, which will raiſe the republic out of the abyſs into which it was upon the point of being buried. But can this new order of things be definitive? No; it is impoſſible to frame a perfect conſtitution with ſuch rapidity: too much reflection cannot be exerciſed in its creation; we muſt conſequently take the time and the precautions neceſſary for its eſtabliſhment, and form

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the inſtruments by which this can be accompliſhed; we muſt have ſomething proviſionary and intermediary; and it is preciſely that which will be preſented to you in the project which is going to be ſubmitted to your deliberation."

Such, in ſubſtance, was the ſpeech which diſcloſed the plan of the reformers to clear away the conſtitution, and build up another on the old foundation.

After the orator had given a further developement to his ideas, another member of the commiſſion preſented the project, which, having been ſtrenuouſly ſupported in the council of elders, was finally adopted.

The project ſtated, that the *directory exiſted no longer*; that certain deputies, chiefly of the Jacobin party, to the number of ſixty-one, were no longer members of the national repreſentation; that an executive commiſſion ſhould be proviſionally appointed, compoſed of Sieyes, Ducos, and Bonaparte, who ſhould bear the names of conſuls of the French republic;—that this commiſſion ſhould be inveſted with the plenitude of directorial power, and ſpecially charged to organize every part of the adminiſtration;—to re-eſtabliſh internal tranquillity, and procure a ſolid and honourable peace;—that it ſhould be authorized to ſend delegates into the departments with a determined and limited power;—that the legiſlative body ſhould adjourn to the 1ſt of Ventoſe next;—that during this adjournment the members ſhould preſerve their indemnity and conſtitutional guarantee, and be capable, likewiſe, of exerciſing other functions;—that during the preſent aſſembly, each council ſhall name commiſſions, compoſed of twenty-five members each, who, on the formal and neceſſary propoſition of the conſular commiſſion, ſhould decide on all urgent matters of police, legiſlation, and finance;—that the commiſſion of the five hundred ſhould have the initiative, and that of the elders the ſanction;—that the two commiſſions ſhould be charged to prepare the changes in the organic diſpoſitions of the conſtitution; the end of which changes were to conſolidate,

lidate, guarantee, and inviolably conſecrate the ſovereignty of the French people;—that the conſular commiſſion ſhould preſent its views on theſe points; that they ſhould likewiſe be charged with the formation of a civil code; that they ſhould hold their ſittings at Paris, in the palace of the legiſlative body; and convoke it extraordinarily for the ratification of peace, or in caſe of any imminent public danger.

The adoption of this decree was followed by a proclamation to the people of France, recapitulating the events which had taken place, and the cauſe which led to the preſent changes. The two legiſlative commiſſions were then choſen, conſiſting of twenty-five members; the oath of inviolable fidelity to the ſovereignty of the people, to the French republic one and indiviſible, to equality, liberty, and the repreſentative ſyſtem, was taken by the conſuls, after a ſpeech from the preſident, in which, ſpeaking in the name of poſterity, he obſerved, that "if liberty was created in the Tennis-court of Verſailles, it was conſolidated in the Orangery of St. Cloud; the conſtituents of 1789 were the fathers of the revolution, but the legiſlators of the year 8 were the fathers and pacificators of the country."

Thus finiſhed that memorable day of revolution, which, whatever were the opinions reſpecting the means by which it was effected, was yet received with general enthuſiaſm by all ranks of French citizens, the fullen and ſanguinary Jacobin party excepted; and we have been the more copious in giving a full detail of the addreſs and art with which it was effected, and which elevated to the ſummit of power, a man who at this moment makes the moſt illuſtrious figure among the potentates of continental Europe. The rumours artfully propagated at St. Cloud, of a movement organized in the Fauxbourgs, had been fabricated for ſome particular purpoſe; the moſt profound tranquillity reigned throughout the capital, mingled with much anxiety, leſt the meaſures, of which nothing was known but the intention of overthrowing the Jacobins, might fail

fail in the execution. Independent of the military diſpoſitions which had been taken, civil means for the preſervation of the peace of the city were not neglected. The preceding evening the members of the twelve municipalities of Paris, compoſed for the moſt part of adherents to the violent party, had been ſuſpended; and the central commiſſaries were put under the direction of the departmental adminiſtration which was in the ſecret of the revolution, and, during the day, had iſſued proclamations to tranquillize the minds of the citizens reſpecting the events which were about to take place. The miniſter of police, who had alſo been ſternly bent againſt his former Jacobinical brethren and friends, and who was on that account beſt acquainted with their machinations, iſſued alſo notices, recommending the ſame confidence, and menacing the public diſturbers. The dread of Jacobiniſm had gained ſuch firm poſſeſſion of the public mind, that the contrary extreme was ſcarcely apprehended; no form, indeed, of government would have been found unwelcome, provided that of the Jacobins was excluded. The friends of Bonaparte had, however, taken care to aſſure the public reſpecting the intentions of that General; and papers, in the form of dialogues and eſſays, were induſtriouſly ſpread, the tendency of which was to expoſe the folly and impracticability of any perſonal attempts on the part of the General againſt the rights and liberties of the people.

The three conſuls entered upon their public functions the following day at the palace of the Luxemburg. Among their firſt operations, was that of a partial change in the miniſtry. The miniſtry of the interior, General Berthier, was choſen to the war department, with ſeveral other alterations. The legiſlative commiſſions opened alſo their ſittings at the ſame time. The firſt object which engaged their attention was the repeal of the law of the forced loan, and that other, known under the law of hoſtages; the former of which had annihilated the little that remained of public credit, and

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the other kindled civil war, and excited all the diſcordant paſſions through the whole of France. Among the means of raiſing the former, was the repeal of the latter. Nothing was more favourable to this end, than the repeal of that law, which was no ſooner promulgated in the inſurgent departments, than thoſe who had taken arms in their own defence againſt it immediately propoſed a ſuſpenſion, which was humanely acceded to by General Hedouville; while thoſe who were guided by motives more hoſtile to the republic, continued their depredations, publicly avowing, that their view was nothing leſs than the re-eſtabliſhment of the throne and the altar; and, that the late directors and preſent conſuls were alike traitors and uſurpers.

A revolution ſo univerſal in the great republic of France, ſoon influenced the leſſer ſurrounding republics. The Batavian, juſt emancipated from Engliſh and Ruſſian protection, was on the point of falling into the hands of the Jacobin faction, which, at a former period, under the diplomatic ſanction of Lacroix, had for a ſhort time, uſurped the government. Preſuming on the revolutionary diſpoſitions of the French general Brune, and on the miſunderſtanding which had taken place between him and the Batavian directory, after the evacuation of the Engliſh and Ruſſians, the Jacobin party had taken meaſures for the overthrow of the preſent government, of the ſucceſs of which they ſeemed perfectly aſſured. The meaſures purſued by the Jacobins in France, previous to their political ſuſpenſion by the directory, were re-acted at the Hague. The executive, legiſlative, and other conſtituted authorities, had gone through the ſame courſe of calumny and inſult. But matters, as they imagined, being matured, a day was fixed for the exploſion; but the events of the 18th, which routed the Jacobin party in France, prognoſticated nothing favourable to thoſe of Holland, who little thought the cataſtrophe ſo near which diſcomfited all their preſent projects, and alſo blaſted all their hopes of future ſucceſs.

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In the Ligurian republic alſo, a revolution took place, nearly ſimilar to what had happened in France.

The important revolution which had juſt been ſo ſuddenly brought about, was now generally acceded to by all claſſes of the people of France, except by the extremes of both parties, the terroriſt Jacobins and the terroriſt Royaliſts. In proportion as theſe two factions felt the effect of the mutual wound given to their hopes, the convulſions of their expiring agonies encreaſed. The Chouans, under the leaders of this deſcription, grew more deſperate in their attempts, and made deſolating incurſions to within twenty leagues of Paris. The Jacobins in the ſouth more particularly, had it not been for the energetic meaſures taken by the government would have broken out into open rebellion: the moderate royaliſts at Paris, whoſe hopes revived by every change, were equally loud, though from different motives, with the republican party againſt the revolution. But the firmneſs of the new executive government ſet all oppoſition at defiance; although they, by one act of ſeverity, incurred great blame, and that was, by condemning fifty-nine Jacobins to baniſhment, without any other motive than the power conferred on the conſuls, by which they were charged with the re-eſtabliſhment of the public tranquillity. Arreſts of the leading Jacobins alſo took place.

No ſooner however was the arret publiſhed, than a general cry of indignation roſe throughout Paris; not but the individuals conſigned in this decree were for the moſt part monſters covered with crimes, and to whom France might juſtly attribute a great part of the horrors it had ſuffered and the dangers it had undergone; but becauſe where no legal ſentence had convicted, the infliction of puniſhment was a manifeſt violation of liberty. This clamour of diſſatisfaction had its effect; and, by the advice of Sieyes, the decree of baniſhment was firſt ſoftened, and ſhortly after altogether repealed.

Reſpecting religion, the prieſthood had ſuffered by every change in the government; and this intolerance prevented any conſiderable propagation of the tenets of this half-reformed church; but, what is a curious circumſtance, a periodical work, partly hiſtorical, partly doctrinal, at this time appeared, and a few publications, among which, (a new proof of the tolerant ſpirit of the church), was a tranſlation of the Biſhop of Llandaff's Apology, in anſwer to Paine's Age of Reaſon. This laſt book, tranſlated into French, was hitherto not known in France: but the intereſt of Chriſtanity was now conſidered as a common cauſe; and the zeal of thoſe catholic biſhops, in ordering a proteſtant anſwer to be tranſlated and propagated, was a proof of the progreſs of the ſpirit of toleration, and of their own diſintereſtedneſs, as their hopes of earthly rewards were now extinguiſhed for ever; and poverty and ſufferings had made them reſemble the earthly condition of Jeſus Chriſt.

The conſuls, with the other conſtituted authorities, went on with their work of not only reforming the enormities and abuſes of the preceding directorial government; but alſo in forming, in a great meaſure, a new conſtitution; and after various meetings of the conſuls and commiſſions, the conſtitution received the approbation of the great majority, and the ſanction of the whole, and was proclaimed with the accuſtomed ſolemnity (December 24th) throughout Paris. The declaration of the rights of man, ſuch as liberty, equality, the ſovereignty of the people, and the developement of what was termed fundamental principles, was not made the preamble to this new conſtitution, as of thoſe which had preceded it; becauſe, it was ſaid, that theſe principles were ſo univerſally acknowledged, that their further expoſition was unneceſſary. The legiſlative power was compoſed of a tribunate, conſiſting of 100 members, of twenty-five years of age at leaſt, renewable a fifth part of every year, and always re-eligible ſo long as they are kept on the national liſt: of a legiſlative body compoſed of

of 300, whose members must be thirty years old at least, and a fifth part of whom is annually renewed, but who are ineligible till the second year; neither of these have the initiation of the laws; this is the prerogative of the executive power, which, by a council of state, consisting of thirty members, proposes the laws to the legislative body.

The executive power was composed of the first consul Bonaparte, who promulgates the laws, names and dismisses the ministers, generals, ambassadors, and councellors of state; the officers by sea and land; the members of local administrations, and the commissaries of government at the tribunals; all the judges criminal and civil, except justices of the peace, and the judges of the tribunal of revision, without the power of dismissing them. There were other two consuls (Cambaceres and Lebrun) named likewise by the constitution for the discussion of affairs along with the first consul; but they were to have only a *consultative* voice, and no right in the decision. The consuls are inviolable; they were named for ten years, and are re-eligible; the third consul, for the first time, is named only for five years. The first consul was to have for the first two years a salary of 500,000 livres; the other two were to have three tenths of the sum allowed to the first consul.

The members of the tribunal consisted of a commission of ten or fifteen of its members, when it adjourns, and the salary of each member was 15,000 livres; and that of the legislative body was to be 10,000 livres to each member a year.

Of the persons named to places by the constitution, Bonaparte and Sieyes held the first rank. The contest for supremacy in the hierarchy of government was at first warmly disputed between these two ambitious chiefs. Victory, however, decided itself in favour of Bonaparte; but public jealousy, if not public favour, still held strongly to Sieyes. It was necessary for the consolidation of Bonaparte's power to diminish as much as possible that of this rival. The snare was coarse and

obvious;

obvious: yet Bonaparte, it ſeems, had diſcovered the nature of his game. Sieyes, on the other hand, ſtruggling for power, was deemed ambitious; but he was reſpectable and approved; and had even a very large majority in his favour. His more fortunate rival, for the preſent, might have ſoared above him, but Sieyes was an object continually in view. His name was interwoven with the revolution; and thoſe who diſapproved of his ambition, yet had confidence in his principles.

To deſtroy this laſt hold, it was thought the moſt eligible plan to hold out a lure to the avarice of Sieyes. The ſcheme ſucceeded to the moſt ſanguine wiſh of Bonaparte. Sieyes was tempted with the offer of the eſtate of Croſne, a national domain of about 600l. ſterling a year, by the legiſlative commiſſions, who were properly inſtructed by Bonaparte for the purpoſe. Sieyes accepted the offer, and ſealed his infamy by the deed. Half of France regarded the offer as an inſult to the virtue of Sieyes, and the other half no-ways doubted of Sieyes's inſtant rejection. Both parties were aſtoniſhed and diſappointed. Sieyes ſwallowed with greedineſs the gilded bait; but, to render the tranſaction more ludicrous, the national eſtate, ſo ignominiouſly beſtowed, was diſcovered to be the undiſputed property of a private citizen. Sieyes having incurred the diſgrace, was reſolved, however, not to loſe the profit, but followed up his diſhonour with all the fervour of avaricious intrigue, and procured the mutation of his unenjoyed domain into a ſum of money of three times the value.

Sieyes received with this hire of his public ſervices, the ſuper-addition of a place for life, with 25,000 livres a year, as a ſenator. His colleague, the ex-director Ducos, who had no other merit than blind obedience to the will of Sieyes, was bought off likewiſe with a ſimilar appointment. The power of the two conſuls was not very extenſive; and they were regarded as little more than

than maſters of the ceremonies to Bonaparte, the firſt conſul.

In this manner Bonaparte, by applying to the ruling paſſion of Sieyes, and ſucceeding in the application, felt his ſeat in power ſolid and permanent. The conſuls next proceeded to the nomination of the ſenate, and their choice in general fell upon men whoſe conduct through the revolution had been meritorious, ſuch as Kellerman, Monge Volney, &c.

The council of ſtate choſen by the firſt conſul was compoſed, for the moſt part, of men eminent for talents in the reſpective ſections to which they were deſtined, ſuch as Boulay de la Meurthe, Emmery Chaptal, Fourcroy Petiet, Regnaud, Gantheaume, &c. and although there were exceptions to ſome characters choſen, yet the general compoſition was an union of as much talents and integrity as could, perhaps, at that ſeaſon be found in France.

The conſervatory ſenate and the conſuls proceeded to the nomination of the members of the reſpective adminiſtrations, before the conſtitution was accepted by the people, preſuming on its general and ſpeedy adoption. Regiſters were opened in every commune, in which citizens inſcribed their votes either of acceptance or rejection as their principles or opinions directed them. Mean while, the conſuls took poſſeſſion of the reins of government, of which they gave official notice to the conſervatory ſenate by a letter, in which they promiſed, "that they would employ, in every circumſtance, all the means in their power to deſtroy the ſpirit of faction, create a public ſpirit, and conſolidate the conſtitution; truſting that the ſenate would join them in preventing the machinations of ill-inclined men, if any ſuch had obtained admiſſion into the firſt offices of the ſtate.

The firſt attention of the conſuls, after their inſtallation, were directed towards the departments of the weſt, where the civil war, though it had conſiderably abated of its fierceneſs by the ſubmiſſion of various chiefs, ſtill continued to deſolate and diſorganize the country. As

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this was the moſt ruinous calamity that affected the ſtate, ſuch coercive meaſures were reſolved on, as ſhould bring it to a ſpeedy, and, if abſolutely neceſſary, to a terrible termination. A conſular manifeſto was therefore addreſſed to the inhabitants of thoſe departments, in which the conſuls repreſented, that it was become their duty to ſtop the progreſs of this war, and totally extinguiſh it;—that they were unwilling to employ the force put into their hands, till they had exhauſted every mode of perſuaſion and juſtice. The authors of theſe commotions they repreſented as the frantic partizans of two men (the two brothers of Louis XVI.) who had neither done honour to their rank by the exhibition of any virtues, nor to their misfortunes by any ſplendid action; and who lived deſpiſed among foreigners, where they had accumulated hatred, without inſpiring a ſingle ſentiment of eſteem. The reſt were traitors, ſold to foreign powers, and inſtruments of their fury—or ruffians ſeeking food, and impunity for their crimes, in the diſorders which they committed and fomented; to ſuch characters as theſe the government owed neither reſpect nor declaration of its principles; but there are citizens, continues the manifeſto, who are dear to the country, who have been ſeduced by the machinations of the former; to theſe we owe truth and information. Unjuſt laws, the manifeſto acknowledges, had been promulgated and executed; arbitrary acts had alarmed the ſecurity of the citizens, and the liberty of conſcience; in every department, names unjuſtly, or careleſsly inſerted on the liſt of emigrants, had affected citizens who had never quitted their country, nor even their homes; the great principles, in ſhort, of ſocial order had been violated. After this frank declaration, juſtificatory, in ſome meaſure, of the reſiſtance which had been made, the manifeſto ſtated, that it was to repair that injuſtice and thoſe errors, that a government, founded on the ſacred baſis of liberty and equality, had been proclaimed and acknowledged by the nation; that it would be the conſtant will, as it was the intereſt

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and glory of the firſt magiſtrates, to heal every wound of the ſtate; the evidence of which intention might be found in the various acts of juſtice which had emanated from them, ſome of which the manifeſto enumerated, ſuch as the repeal of the diſaſtrous law reſpecting hoſtages, the oppreſſive forced loan, and the recall of multitudes from exile; that liberty of conſcience was guaranteed by the new conſtitution; that the edifices for public worſhip were reſtored to the people; that particular attention ſhould be paid to ſuch departments as had been viſited by extraordinary calamities; and that every diſpoſition to induſtry, whether in agriculture or manufactures, ſhould find the moſt marked encouragement.

After making theſe frank avowals of wrongs on the part of the late government, and promiſes of amendment on that of the preſent, the inhabitants of the weſt, to whom plenary remiſſion for all paſt offences was offered, were invited to rally round a conſtitution which preſented ſuch benefits, to ſeparate themſelves from thoſe who perſiſted in miſleading them, and to return quietly to their homes and habitual employments. To ſuch as were diſobedient, or regardleſs of the invitation, the dreadful alternative of the ravages and deſolations of war was held out; but of this horrible expedient, the conſuls were perſuaded no uſe would be made, ſince, henceforth no ſentiment would animate Frenchmen but that of love for their country. "The miniſters of a God of peace," added they in the concluſion of their addreſs, "will be the firſt promoters of reconciliation and concord; they will ſpeak to the heart the language they learnt at the ſchool of their divine maſter; they will enter thoſe temples which are now again open to them, and offer, with their fellow citizens, the ſacrifice which ſhall expiate the crimes of war, and the blood it has cauſed to be ſhed."

This maſterly and conciliatory addreſs, ſo oppoſite in its views and tendency to the perſecuting dragonades of the late government, was followed by a conſular decree,

cree, which ſtated, that, in the decade after the publication, in the communes forming the arrondiſment of the army of England, the bands of the inſurgents ſhould diſſolve themſelves, and every inhabitant return to his commune;—that arms of every kind, particularly the artillery and muſquets which had been furniſhed by the Engliſh, ſhould be depoſited in certain places, and agreeably to the mode which ſhould be preſcribed by General Hedonville; that an entire and abſolute amneſty ſhould be granted to the inhabitants of the weſtern departments for all paſt events; and that the communes which ſhould remain in rebellion, ſhould be declared out of the conſtitution, and treated as enemies of the French nation.

The admonitions contained in this proclamation, were ſoon after ſeconded by other and more powerful conſiderations.

The important events which had taken place in the interior of France, the elevation of one of their citizens, Bonaparte, to dictatorial power, and who at this moment (1803) ſeems to wiſh to give law to Europe, were matters of too high concern to be ſlightly mentioned in this hiſtory of the war, and in which he has made, too, ſo conſpicuous a figure, will alſo ſerve as an apology to our readers for our deviating a little from our recital of what had been paſſing without the frontiers, with a ſketch of which the account of the tranſactions of the year 1799 will be cloſed.

After the ſignal victories gained by the French over the united armies of the Auſtrians and Ruſſians, under Korſakow at Zurich, and Suwarrow in the little cantons, the allied armies found themſelves, towards the beginning of November, in the ſame poſition, and in the ſame lines which the Auſtrian army had occupied before its entry into Switzerland by the Griſons and Thurgau. Theſe lines, though very extended, were nevertheleſs almoſt impregnable, becauſe the moſt conſiderable interval between the ſupports of the wings was covered by the Lake of Conſtance. The ſecurity which

which reſulted from this advantage, permitted the Archduke to keep his poſition at Schaffhauſen, between the Danube and Switzerland. He had fixed his head-quarters at Donnaueſchingen, from whence he kept his eye on Baſil, where Maſſena was making demonſtrations of attack to favour the paſſage of the Rhine and the new movements of the French on the Lower Rhine. At the ſame time, the Archduke, ſupported on his right by the corps of General Stzarry, and of Prince Charles of Lorraine, took meaſures for filling up by his left the void which the retreat of the French army had left in the Griſons and Voralberg.

General Suwarrow aſſembled his army in the neighbourhood of Lindau on the Lake of Conſtance, and rallied alſo the diviſions of Korſakow; and notwithſtanding the ſeveral bloody defeats they had experienced, yet theſe two Ruſſian armies were ſtill reſpectable, although their loſs had exceeded half of their original number of troops. They yet occupied, towards the end of October, the important poſt of Bregantz, but were ſoon after relieved by Bavarian troops, when the Ruſſian diviſions of artillery which had returned to Italy by the Tyrol had reached the heights of Kempten.

Suwarrow, who had already ſent back his cavalry on his rear, began his retreat, transferring his head-quarters, and the line of his cantonments to Memmingen; the corps of the Prince of Conde filed off from this army towards Augſburg, to take up their winter-quarters either in that city or its vicinity.

From this defection of the Ruſſian general, the ſituation of the Archduke became extremely critical. He, however, contrived by the ſkilful choice of his poſitions, on a line of about eighty leagues, from the famous poſt of Nauders at the entrance of Engadin on the frontier of the Tyrol down to Philipſburg, to keep up, on the right ſide of the Rhine, a reſpectable defenſive with leſs than 60,000 men againſt ſuperior forces. The French, after having ſecured their poſitions on the left ſide of the Lake Conſtance, puſhed their advantages on

ſide of the Griſons by the valley of Diſentis. The Generals Soult, Loiſon, and Mortier, diſlodged ſucceſſively the corps of the rearguard which had held firm in the principal paſſes, and forced them to retreat on the other ſide of the Rhine by the bridges of Rechnau and Feldſberg, which were burnt. The Imperial regiment of Brechainville ſuffered much in this retreat; Coire was evacuated; General Linken, who had replaced General Hotze in the command of all this frontier of Voralberg and the Tyrol, kept up the poſt of Mayenfield, his communications with Feldkirch, and tranſferred his head-quarters to Pludentz in the Voralberg.

The French advanced no further. Maſſena made no attempts to force the Imperialiſts to evacuate the whole of the Griſons, ſince an attack, which would infallibly have been bloody, would have had at that moment no determinate object. He employed himſelf in bringing together the different corps of his army, and concentrating the greateſt part on Baſil and on Zurich, the entrenchments of which he raiſed and augmented; withdrawing from the Vallais General Thureau's diviſion, and leaving only a few troops under the command of General Jacopin. All the paſſes on the ſide of St. Gothard and the Simplon were cloſed up by the ſnows. Theſe regions of eternal winter, thoſe ſeas of ice, were no longer attainable by the traveller, whoſe curioſity heretofore loſt in his aſtoniſhment at the ſublimity of nature, will henceforth enlarge its reſearches to other objects, and trace the veſtiges of camps, and the dreadful images of war, which have annexed another kind of celebrity to thoſe moſt aſtoniſhing points of the globe.

After the evacuation of Switzerland by the allies, under circumſtances ſo much the more unfavourable, as they deſtroyed that mutual confidence ſtill more neceſſary in reverſes than in proſperity, the cabinet of Vienna, by the advice, it is ſaid, of the Archduke, took the wiſe reſolution of carrying all its efforts to its wings, and of reſting in a ſtate of paſſive obſervation with reſpect

ſpect to Switzerland. The wiſdom of this meaſure was ſo much the more manifeſt, as, if the French continued to maintain for a longer time in Switzerland the moſt numerous of their three armies, they could not but greatly ſuffer from the ſcarcity of ſubſiſtence. They were too ſtrong to remain in obſervation before an inferior army, and not ſufficiently in force, or too much fatigued, to reſume the offenſive towards Suabia or Bavaria: if, on the contrary, the war vigorouſly carried on in Italy, and on the Lower Rhine, forced the French government to withdraw part of its troops from Switzerland, the great advantage of this advanced ſituation of the French on the Tyrol would be neutralized, and the balance become re-eſtabliſhed.

But it was above all in Italy that the houſe of Auſtria was intereſted to follow up its firſt ſucceſſes. Every thing had been made ſubordinate to the re-taking of Mantua and Lombardy. Suwarrow had cheaply gained himſelf a reputation in taking advantage of the firſt victories of General Kray; but what aſtoniſhed the court of Vienna was, that thoſe advantages had no happier conſequences for the allies; and that Moreau with his diminiſhed band had ſtopped in the plains of the Po the hitherto rapid progreſs of the victorious army.

The court of Vienna, however, felt all the importance of retaining, at any price, conqueſts ſo dearly purchaſed; and as ſoon as the retreat of the Ruſſian army was decided, all the reinforcements of Auſtrian troops which could be collected in Carinthia, in the Tyrol, and in the Venetian ſtates, were directed towards the army of Generals Melas and Kray. Theſe Generals, who had joined their forces at the affair of Foſſano and Savigliano, afterwards ſeparated. Melas endeavoured to form the inveſtment of Coni, which the French, maſters of the high valleys, rendered extremely difficult, whilſt Kray marched with a great body of infantry into the valley of Aoſta, and forced them to re-paſs Mount Jouvet. The diviſion of Ott and Frolich were employed before Rome, and that of the

the latter afterwards at Ancona. Klenau continued to block up Genoa on the ſide of the river on the eaſt, and puſhed his poſts as far as Ripalto.

Such were the poſition and diſtribution of the forces of the Auſtrian army, which, as has been obſerved, ſeemed to redouble its activity after the departure of the auxiliary Ruſſian army. The total force of the army under the command of General Melas, in the beginning of October, was eſtimated at 60,000 men. His chief aim was the capture of Coni, and the taking from the French this key of Piedmont, which was the beſt ſituated for favouring their offenſive operations at the opening of the campaign, while they were ſtill more ſtrongly intereſted in preſerving it, as it extended and ſecured the baſis of their defence of the Ligurian territory.

Championet, in order to be within reach of parrying the blows which were aimed at his left, transferred his head-quarters from Cornigliano to Finale. Thoſe of Melas were at La Trinita, about four or five leagues from Coni. Inſtantly a war of poſts took place between detachments of the two armies, the object of which was to form and prevent the inveſtment of this place. The two Generals, mean while, attempted to divert each others attention, and divide their forces. Klenau, who from his poſition at Ripalto had orders to advance upon Genoa, was beat back to Sarzano by General Miollis. The French taking advantage of the ſecurity afforded to the northern part of the Genoeſe territory by the poſt of Bochetta, marched down to Novi, of which they took poſſeſſion, made a vigorous attack at Rivalta on General Karaczy, and threatened an incurſion on the ſide of Placentia towards the Milaneſe.

However ſerious theſe diverſions, they did not take off the attention of either party from the principal object. Melas aſſembled the army deſtined for the ſiege, and ſent reinforcements to Karaczy and Klenau. Coni was blockaded by the three Generals, Ott, Nobili, and Gotteſheim; the Auſtrian head-quarters were transferred

red to Montenera, and preparations for the ſiege were carried on with vigour.

Championet, on his ſide, after having confided to General St. Cyr the head and right of his line, the place of Genoa and the poſts adjacent, collected at Coni all his forces, and went thither in perſon. He had called in the detached corps which he united to the army of the Alps, and it appeared, that with the garriſon of Coni he had about 25,000 men. Several fierce ſkirmiſhes took place between the advanced poſts, the ſucceſs of which was various, when Championet reſolved to give battle to diſengage Coni, having formed the project of enveloping the right wing of the Auſtrian army, on the ſide of Foſſano and Savigliano;—to cut off their communications with their magazines at Bra and Turin, and force General Melas to fight in a diſadvantageous poſition, or draw off from Coni by quitting the entrance of the plains of Piedmont; which plan of attack was combined with the movements which General Duheſme was to make by the valley of Suza, in leading a column upon Pignerol and Saluzza. In order to conceal his intentions, Championet manœuvred by his right, and made General Victor attack the poſts of Chiuſa and Villa Nova, which were ſucceſſively evacuated by the Auſtrians. This column advanced as far as Mendovi, which refuſed to ſurrender. Ceva was alſo blocked up, and other poſts taken. In the courſe of the following days, the French diviſions of the left and centre marched forward; Lemoine followed the left of the Stura, Championet marched towards Renchi, Grenier's diviſion approached the place of Foſſano, and, while General Freſſinet took poſſeſſion of the entrenchments of Caſtelletto, on the right of the Stura, General Duheſme attacked and carried the Auſtrian poſts entrenched near Pignerol.

Theſe attacks made at the ſame time on the two banks of the Stura, gave place to very ſharp engagements between the heads of the French columns, and the corps of the Auſtrian army which guarded the principal

principal poſts. Hitherto the advantage had been on the ſide of the French; they had broken the line of inveſtment, taken a number of priſoners, and made preparations for following up their firſt ſucceſſes.

General Melas having diſcovered Campionet's project, detached the greater part of his forces towards his right, having in his turn formed a plan of attacking the left wing of the French; to ſucceed in his object, he declined with his left, and evacuated Mendovi, haraſſed by the French, abandoning his entrenchments between Stura and the Tanaro, where he had fixed *his* head-quarters, and took an oblique poſition between Foſſano and Marienne, below Savigliano, of which the French had taken poſſeſſion. The two hoſtile armies were now in full view of each other, between the rivers of Grana and Stura. Melas, extending his right, obliged the French to extend their left, detaching themſelves further from Coni, and conſequently weakening their line, and conſtrained to fight with inferior forces, eſpecially in cavalry and on more uncovered ground. On the 4th of November, the French army received orders to advance and attack the Imperialiſts. Melas had made his diſpoſitions to attack the French on the ſame day, on the ſame points, and preciſely in the ſame directions.

On the morning the correſponding diviſions of the two armies formed, and began their march at the ſame time. Thoſe columns met; the action began by the ſhock of that of General Ott, which marched upon Savigliano againſt General Grenier's column, which marched upon Marienne. Theſe two columns attacked with the moſt ardent bravery, ſought to turn each other, mingled in each other's ranks, and fought with deſperate courage. The French infantry ſupported and repelled ſeveral charges of cavalry; but at length General Grenier was obliged to give way, and retreated in good order towards Savigliano. The croſſed attack under the fire of the place of Foſſano between General Victor's diviſion, and thoſe of General Elnitz and Gotteſheim

heim was not leſs vigorous. The Imperialiſts were three times repulſed; three times the French columns attacked; General Richepanſe, at the head of the cavalry charged the artillery; General Adrien was killed. Melas attacked the French columns with vigour, and with his whole forces, and compelled Championet to retreat; being attacked the next day he was again obliged to yield to ſuperiority in numbers, having loſt in theſe two battles more than 8,000 men, being a full third part of his whole effective force.

After theſe various ſucceſſes, Melas ſummoned Coni to ſurrender. The main of the army was encamped at Bergo, where the Auſtrian general fixed his head-quarters, placing corps of obſervation to prevent every means of relief.

Mean while, the ſiege of Coni was carried on with great activity and vigour. More than 7,000 men were employed in the trenches and batteries. The beſieging army, already numerous, was continually receiving new reinforcements, and two hundred pieces of cannon were ready to open on the town, and notwithſtanding a terrible fire from thence, the trenches were opened. Nineteen batteries of artillery played on the place. The fire was ſo terrible, that the garriſon were compelled to abandon the works. At length a bomb falling on a powder magazine blew up a redoubt; the redoubt taking fire, communicated the flames in every direction; a capitulation was propoſed and agreed to; and the garriſon, of 2,500 men, were made priſoners of war.

Thus almoſt all the French conqueſts in Italy were re-gained by the allies—Ancona, Rome, Coni, all fell into their hands.

The campaign in Italy in 1799 will long be celebrated in the annals of war. The ſkill of the reſpective commanders, the courage and firmneſs of the troops, have no example in former wars in Italy, and will long ſtrike the attention of military men.

Scenes,

Scenes, however, in the ſubſequent year (1800) took place in three quarters of the globe of ſtill greater conſequence; and though ſtriking and novel, in the hiſtory of human affairs, theſe have appeared to the reader; yet, without affecting to excite curioſity and anticipate ſurprize, we preſume to affirm, that thoſe of the ſubſequent year are calculated to wind up theſe emotions of the mind to a very unknown pitch. But the plan we have preſcribed to ourſelves obliges us to reſerve a lucid, yet ſucceinct account, of theſe to the next volume, in which we mean to terminate the work. Mean while, as the Britiſh parliament opened in the concluſion of 1799, with a ſpeech from the throne, which occaſioned high and important debates in both houſes; we ſhall now give a brief abſtract of theſe, eſpecially as they are intimately connected with the war; recounting, likewiſe, ſome of thoſe naval atchievements in which Britiſh valour, as, indeed, during the whole war it has been, was moſt ſignally diſplayed.

The royal ſpeech opened with recommending to the houſe to conſider of the propriety of his Majeſty's availing himſelf to a farther extent of the voluntary ſervices of the militia, at a moment when our active force abroad might be of the moſt beneficial conſequences.

The ſpeech ſet forth, "That ſince the laſt ſeſſion, our proſpects, under providence, had been improved beyond the moſt ſanguine expectation: the deliverance of Italy might now be conſidered as ſecured by a campaign equal in ſplendor and ſucceſs to the moſt brilliant recorded in hiſtory. The kingdom of Naples had been reſcued from the French yoke, and reſtored to the dominion of its lawful ſovereign. The French expedition to Egypt had been productive of calamity and diſgrace to the invaders; while their ultimate views againſt our Eaſtern poſſeſſions had been utterly confounded; the deſperate attempts which our enemies had made to extricate themſelves had been defeated by the Turkiſh forces, directed by the ſkill, and

and animated by the heroiſm of a Britiſh officer; and the overthrow of that reſtleſs and perfidious power had placed the Britiſh intereſt in a ſtate of permanent ſecurity.

"There was every reaſon to expect that our preſent efforts for the deliverance of the United Provinces would prove ſucceſsful; we had reſcued already the principal port and naval arſenal of the Dutch republic from the enemy; and might hope that the ſkill of our Generals, and the intrepidity of our troops, would ſoon, with the aſſiſtance of our allies, ſurmount every obſtacle; and that the fleet deſtined under the uſurped dominion of France, to invade theſe iſlands, would, under its ancient ſtandard, reſtore the religion, liberty and independence of provinces ſo long in alliance with this country. To our good and faithful ally the Emperor of Ruſſia, whoſe wiſdom and magnanimity directed the force of his extenſive empire to ſo many quarters of Europe, we were in a great meaſure indebted for the favourable change in the general poſture of affairs. In purſuance of the recommendation of the Britiſh parliament, his majeſty had communicated their ſentiments to both houſes of Parliament in Ireland, reſpecting a Union with that kingdom, which would add ſo much to the ſecurity and happineſs of his Iriſh ſubjects, and conſolidate the ſtrength and proſperity of the empire."

The Marquis of Buckingham moved the addreſs in the houſe of Lords —We will not follow him in almoſt any part of his ſpeech, being as uſual an echo of that from the throne. We ſhall juſt notice that the noble Marquis expatiated, at great length, on the impiety, cruelty, and injuſtice of the French nation, together with the fate which had attended every action undertaken on ſuch principles. The *man* who was called the conqueror and the hero was defeated and fruſtrated in all his attempts, from the battle of Aboukir to the ſiege of Acre. After ſitting down before an inconſider-

able, and ill-fortified town, which he regularly befieged, he was ſeen to retreat loaded with diſgrace, and completely defeated by a handful of Britiſh ſailors, who, on that occaſion, were converted into ſoldiers, and by the few Turks whom the preſence of our ſmall naval force, and the exertions of our gallant officer, inſpired with courage, which otherwiſe would never have been diſplayed.

After pointing out that Bonaparte had aggregated violations of the *jus gentium*, *(the rights of nations,)* and joined extreme injuſtice to perfidious breach of hoſpitality, he complimented Sir Sidney Smith on his ſpirit and ſucceſs, with a ſmall force oppoſed to the *vain glorious* conqueror of Italy, at the head of an army habituated to victory.

After ſeveral other ſpeeches had been delivered, the addreſs was unanimouſly voted.

In the houſe of Commons, the ſpeech was read and conſidered, on which Mr. Shaw Lefevre moved an addreſs; this, after a long and eloquent ſpeech from Mr. Tierney, was at length carried.

On the 2d of October, the chancellor of the exchequer moved the order of the day for the houſe to form itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe, to conſider of a ſupply to be granted to his Majeſty. After conſiderable diſcuſſion of the various items of the finance, Mr. Pitt ſummed up, and the total of the ways and means for the year then amounted to 39,500,000l.

The cloſe of the year 1799 was diſtinguiſhed by a remarkable revolution in the government of France, the particulars of which we have fully detailed in the preceding pages of this hiſtory.

One of the firſt meaſures of the new government was to ſolicit reconciliation and peace with Great Britain. With that view a letter was ſent by a ſpecial meſſenger from the chief conſul, immediately addreſſed to the King of Great Britain, of which the following is an official tranſlation.

" Bonaparte,

" Bonaparte, First Conſul of the French republic, to the King of Great Britain and Ireland.

" Called by the wiſhes of the French nation to occupy the firſt magiſtracy of the republic, I think it proper on entering on my office to make a direct communication of it to your Majeſty.

" The war which for eight years has ravaged the four quarters of the world, muſt it be eternal? Are there no means of coming to an underſtanding? How can the two moſt enlightened nations in Europe, powerful and ſtrong beyond what their ſafety and independence require, ſacrifice to ideas of vain grandeur, commerce, proſperity, and peace? How is it that they do not feel that peace is of the firſt importance, as well as the higheſt glory?

" Theſe ſentiments cannot be foreign to the heart of your Majeſty, who reigns over a free nation with the ſole view of rendering it happy. Your Majeſty will ſee in this overture my ſincere wiſh to contribute efficaciouſly, for the ſecond time, to a general pacification, by a ſtep ſpeedy, entirely of confidence, and diſengaged from thoſe forms which, perhaps neceſſary to diſguiſe the dependance of weak ſtates, prove, in thoſe that are ſtrong, only the deſire of deceiving each other.

" France and England, by the abuſe of their ſtrength, may ſtill for a long time, for the misfortune of all nations, retard the period of their being exhauſted; but I will venture to ſay it, the fate of all civilized nations is attached to the termination of a war which involves the whole world.

" Your Majeſty's, &c.

" BONAPARTE."

Paris, 5th Nivoiſe, 8th year.

To this letter, Lord Grenville as ſecretary of ſtate for the foreign department, returned an anſwer in the following terms:

Sir,

Sir,

I have laid before the King the letter which you have tranſmitted to me, and his Majeſty ſeeing no reaſon to depart from thoſe forms which have long been eſtabliſhed in Europe for tranſacting buſineſs with foreign ſtates, has commanded me to return in his name the official anſwer which I now ſend.

Official Note.

The King has given frequent proofs of his ſincere deſire for re-eſtabliſhing tranquillity in Europe. He neither is, nor has been engaged in any conteſt for vain glory. He has no other view than that of maintaining againſt all aggreſs the rights and happineſs of his ſubjects. For theſe he has contended againſt an unprovoked attack, and for the ſame objects is ſtill obliged to contend. Nor can he hope that the neceſſity could be removed by entering at the preſent moment into negociation with thoſe whom a freſh revolution has ſo recently placed in the exerciſe of power in France; ſince no real advantage can ariſe from ſuch negociation to the deſirable object of general peace, till thoſe cauſes have ceaſed to operate which originally produced the war, by which it has ſince been protracted, and in more than one inſtance renewed. The ſame ſyſtem to which France juſtly aſcribes all her preſent miſeries, has alſo involved Europe in a deſtructive warfare, of a nature long unknown to the practice of civilized nations. For the extenſion of this ſyſtem, and extermination of all eſtabliſhed governments, the reſources of France have been laviſhed and exhauſted. To this indiſcriminate ſpirit of deſtruction, the Netherlands, the United Provinces, and the Swiſs cantons, have been ſucceſſively ſacrificed. Germany has been ravaged—Italy has been the ſcene of unbounded rapine and anarchy. His Majeſty himſelf has been compelled to maintain an arduous conteſt for the independence and exiſtence of his kingdom.

Nor

Nor have theſe calamities been confined to Europe alone: they have been extended to the moſt diſtant quarters of the world; and even to countries ſo remote, both in ſituation and intereſt, from the preſent conteſt, that the very exiſtence of ſuch a war was probably unknown to thoſe who ſuddenly found themſelves involved in its horrors.

Whilſt ſuch a ſyſtem, therefore, prevails, and whilſt the blood and treaſures of a powerful nation can be laviſhed in its ſupport, experience has ſhown that no defence but that of open and ſteady hoſtility can be availing. The moſt ſolemn treaties have only prepared the way to freſh aggreſſion; and it is to determined reſiſtance alone, that whatever remains in Europe of ſtability, for property, for perſonal ſafety, for ſocial order, or the exerciſes of religion, can be preſerved. For the ſecurity, therefore, of theſe eſſential objects, his Majeſty cannot place reliance on the mere renewal of general profeſſions for pacific diſpoſitions. Such profeſſion have been repeatedly held out by all thoſe who have ſucceſſively directed the reſources of France, to the deſtruction of Europe, and whom the preſent rulers have declared to have been all incapable of maintaining the relations of amity.

Greatly will his Majeſty rejoice whenever it ſhall appear, that the danger to which his own dominions and thoſe of his allies have been ſo long expoſed has really ceaſed; whenever he ſhall be ſatisfied that the neceſſity of reſiſtance ſhall be at an end; that, after ſo many years of crimes and miſeries, better principles have prevailed, and the gigantic projects of ambition, endangering the very exiſtence of civil ſociety, have at length been relinquiſhed. But the conviction of ſuch a change can reſult only from the evidence of facts.

The beſt pledge of its reality and permanence would be the reſtoration of that line of Princes, which, for ſo many centuries, maintained the French nation in proſperity at home, and conſideration abroad. Such an event would at once remove all obſtacles in the way of negociation

negociation or peace. It would confirm to France the unmoleſted enjoyment of its ancient territory, and give to all other nations that tranquillity, that ſecurity, which they are now compelled to ſeek by other means.

But it is not to this mode that his Majeſty limits the poſſibility of ſolid pacification. He makes no claim to preſcribe to France what ſhall be the form of her government, or in whoſe hands ſhall be veſted the authority neceſſary for conducting the affairs of a great and powerful nation.

His Majeſty only looks to the ſecurity of his own dominions, of his allies, and of Europe. Whenever he ſhall judge it can be in any manner attained, he will eagerly embrace the opportunity to concert with his allies the means of an immediate general peace.

Unhappily at preſent no ſuch ſecurity exiſts; no ſufficient evidence of the principles by which the new government will be directed; no reaſonable grounds of its ſtability appear. In this ſituation, therefore, it remains for his Majeſty to purſue, in conjunction with other powers, thoſe exertions of a juſt and defenſive war, which a regard to the happineſs of his ſubjects will never permit him to continue beyond the neceſſity in which they originated, or to terminate on any other foundation than ſuch as would contribute to the ſecure enjoyment of their tranquillity, their conſtitution, and their independence.

(Signed) GRENVILLE.

The letter of Bonaparte and Lord Grenville's anſwer were both communicated to the parliament by a meſſage from his Majeſty, which were taken into conſideration in January following, when long and very important debates took place; with which, however, we ſhall not ſwell our work, but refer the reader to the daily journals of thoſe times, wherein the diſcuſſion of this momentous buſineſs is amply detailed.

We will now conclude our ſecond volume, agreeable to our original plan, with mentioning ſome of the principal

cipal captures that have been made in the year 1790, in addition to thoſe we have already noted in the courſe of our hiſtory ſince the concluſion of the year 1798.

Captain Frazer, on the 15th of January, captured Le Grand Indian, armed ſhip, from Granville, of 20 guns, and 125 men, out only five days, and had taken nothing; ſhe was quite new, with proviſions and ſtores for a three-months cruize, her main-maſt was carried away by the board in endeavouring to eſcape; and Captain Frazer's ſhip, the Shannon, ſprung a main-top-maſt, two of her boats alſo were daſhed to pieces in ſhifting the priſoners, during a rough ſea, which obliged the Captain to quit the ſtation where he was ordered to cruize, and accompany his prize to port, at the Cove of Cork.

Captain Halſtead, of the Phœnix, on the 23d of January, took the Foudriant, French privateer, mounting 20 guns, twelve and ſix-pounders, the former of braſs, with 160 men.—Eight of the guns were thrown overboard during the chaſe, which continued from twelve the foregoing night till noon the next day, when ſhe was captured, during which time they ran upwards of 120 miles. She was launched at Bourdeaux about three months before, had been out from thence on a cruiſe nine weeks, had taken two Engliſh and one American veſſels, being coppered, and appeared, to be a moſt complete ſhip. The veſſels which ſhe had captured were, the Engliſh brig Malbridge, from Martinico; the Engliſh brig Duncan, from Halifax to London; and the American ſhip Argo, from Sweden to Charleſtown.

Admiral Parker, commander in chief of the fleet at Jamaica, tranſmitted an account to the admiralty, dated on the 10th of February, of captures made by his cruizers, by whoſe activity and ſucceſs few of the enemy's privateers were left. Thirteen privateers and armed veſſels had been taken, carrying 72 guns, and 518 men; beſides a liſt of merchant veſſels, of which four had been taken by the Queen and Lark, one by the

the Brunſwick, one by the Thunderer, three by the Acaſta, two by the York, four by the Trent, four by the Hannibal, four by the Trent and Acaſta in company, twelve by the Regulus and Swallow in company, ſeven by the Renomine and Squirrel in company, ſeven by the Magicienne, one by the La Prompte, ſix by the Jamaica, twelve by the Jamaica and Lark in company, two by the Serpent, two by the La Legere, ſeven by the Lark, thirteen by the Diligence, one by the Battler, one by the Pelican and Brunſwick in company, two by the Drake and Serpent in company, two by the Amaranth, and one by the Stork, making near ninety merchant veſſels taken, beſides twenty-one deſtroyed.

His Majeſty's ſhip the Melampus, on the 1ſt of March, captured and brought ſafe into port, Le Mercure French ſhip privateer, of 16 guns, and 103 men, from St. Maloes; had been out on a ſucceſsful cruize in the channel, and was returning into port. Captain Worth, of the Telegraph armed brig, arrived at Torbay on the 19th of March in the evening, with L'Hirondelle brig corvette, of 16 guns; her complement had been eighty-nine men, but captures of an American ſchooner and an Engliſh ſloop, had reduced her crew to ſeventy-two. Captain Worth firſt ſaw her on the 18th, at day-break, when ſhe immediately tacked, and ſtood confidently towards him. At half paſt ſeven, being both cloſe along-ſide, an action commenced, which was kept up for three hours and a half. After ſeveral attempts to board him on both ſides, without effect, being totally unrigged, ſhe ſtruck, and proved to be the veſſel above deſcribed; five of her crew were killed, and fourteen wounded.

Captain Pierpoint, of the Naiad, in company with the St. Fiorenzo, on March the 5th, took the Heraux Hazard French privateer, of 16 guns, and ſixty-four men.

The ſloop Favourite captured a valuable Genoeſe ſhip, and a Spaniſh brig, in the Weſt Indies; and the Naiad

Naiad took another privateer, of 18 guns, and men in proportion.

Captain Bowen, of the Argo, in company with the Leviathan, was off Port Mahon on the 6th of February, and at four in the afternoon, drawing round the eaſt end of Majorca, being under ſtorm ſtay-ſails, in a violent gale, weſterly, Baptain Bowen diſcovered two large Spaniſh frigates at anchor, near a fortified tower, on the ſouth ſide point of Bahia de Alende, who inſtantly upon ſeeing them cut their cables and made ſail to the north, a little eaſterly. His Majeſty's ſhips chaſed with all the canvas which the gale could permit them to bear, and notwithſtanding the utmoſt attention in this reſpect, the Leviathan's main-top-ſail gave way, which misfortune cauſed her to drop a ſtern. The frigates perceiving this circumſtance, took advantage of it, and toward the cloſe of the day ſpoke to each other, when they ſeparated; one of them hauling her wind ſtood to the northward; the other ſet top-gallant ſails, and ſtood before it; which latter frigate Captain Bowen kept chaſing. The darkneſs of the night preluded the Leviathan either from ſeeing their menœuvre, or of Captain Bowen's ſignal for altering her courſe to part: however, ſhe kept ſight of the Argo till midnight, when ſhe got up with the chaſe, which ſtill endeavoured to make off, though the ſmall ſail which ſhe could carry, was either ſhot through, or carried away in the purſuit; yet ſhe did not ſurrender till ſhe had received the Argo's whole broadſide, which wounded two men, and did much damage to her rigging. She proved to be the Santa Thereſa, commanded by Don Pablo Perez, of 42 guns mounted, beſides ſwivels and cohorns, manned with 280 ſailors and marines, and 250 ſoldiers, making in all 530 perſons on board. She was juſt out of dock, rebuilt, coppered, and in every reſpect almoſt as good as a new ſhip, completely ſtored and victualled for four months. She was eſteemed to be the ſwifteſt ſailing frigate out of the Spaniſh ports, of large dimenſions,

near 1,000 tons burthen, and fit for immediate ſervice.

On the 19th, Captain Moore chaſed a ſhip, which, upon his firing at her, hoiſted French colours. The wind being hard at north-weſt, with a very high ſea, ſhe put before it, when the Melampus was within half cannon ſhot, but ſetting all poſſible ſails, ſhe obſtinately endeavoured to eſcape. The Melampus had her ſtudding-ſails carried away, and kept firing chaſe-guns, when Captain Moore ſaw her ſuddenly give a broad yaw to windward, and overſet, going down ſo ſuddenly, that in two minutes not a fragment of the wreck could be ſeen, although the greateſt exertions were made for bringing the Melampus to the wind as near to where ſhe went down as was poſſible, with a view of ſaving thoſe unfortunate people, but nothing appeared on the ſurface of the foaming waves.

Vice-admiral Harvey, commander in chief of his Majeſty's ſhips on the Leeward iſland ſtation, tranſmitted an account, dated May the 17th, of captures made by the ſhips under his command, as follows: by the Bittern, the Spaniſh ſhip Amiſtood, from Spain, bound to Giejon, laden with wine and brandy. By the Lapwing, two French ſchooners, named Le Revanch, and L'Amiable; the former from St. Thomas the latter from St. Bartholomew's for Guadaloupe, laden with dry goods and proviſions. By the Concorde, the French ſchooner Da Recherche, from Guadaloupe to St. Thomas, with ſugar and coffee. By the Southampton, the Dutch ſchooner Maria, from Curazou to Surinam, with ſalt. Alſo by the Pearl, the Victorieuſe, a ſmall Spaniſh ſchooner, from Margarette to the Oronoque, laden with ſalt. The ſquadron had likewiſe retaken three Britiſh and twelve American veſſels, and detained fourteen, under ſuſpicion of having enemy's property on board, and ſailing under different colours.

Admiral Lord Duncan received information that ſeveral Dutch gun-veſſels were lying behind the iſland of Ameland; and Captains Temple, of his Majeſty's ſloop Jalouſe,

Jalouſe, and Boader, of L'Eſpeigle, very handſomely propoſed to volunteer their ſervice in cutting them out: upon this propoſal, boats from the Circe, Jalouſe, Pylades, L'Eſpeigle, and Tyſiphone, were ordered to proceed under their command, on the 17th of June, at midnight, and the ſhips ſtood as near ſhore as poſſible, to render every aſſiſtance in their power.—But it ſoon appeared that the gun-veſſels had ſhifted their poſition with the ebb of tide, and were lying aground in a place where it was impoſſible for the boats to get near them.—The officers and men were then ordered to cut out as many veſſels from the port as might be practicable to bring off; and they ſucceeded in getting out twelve veſſels, without a man being killed or wounded, although the enemy oppoſed them as much as they were able from their batteries. Six of the veſſels cut out had valuable cargoes, bound to Amſterdam; the other ſix were in ballaſt.

On the 9th of June, Captain Peard, of the Succeſs, under Lord St. Vincent's orders, ſtanding towards Cape Creaux, diſcovered a polacca, to which he gave chace; but in conſequence of her being near land, he could not prevent her getting into La Selva, a ſmall port northward of the cape. As ſhe had ſhewn Spaniſh colours, with no appearance of batteries to protect her, the weather being very favourable, the Captain ſent the ſhip's boats on trial to bring her out, with inſtructions to Lieutenant Facey, who commanded them, to return if he found any oppoſition of conſequence. At four in the afternoon, Lieutenant Facey in the barge, Lieutenant Stupart in the launch, and Lieutenant Daviſon of marines in the cutter, all volunteers on this occaſion, put off from the ſhip, and at eight, after a good deal of firing, the Captain had the ſatisfaction of ſeeing the polacca come round a point which had kept them from being ſeen for more than an hour. During the time in which the boats were engaged, ſeveral of the enemy's gun-boats endeavoured to get in, but were prevented by ſhot from the ſucceſs. The captured veſſel proved

to

to be La Bella Aurora, from Genoa, bound to Barcelona, laden with cotton, ſilk, and rice.—She mounted 10 guns, having 113 men on board when attacked, and was ſurrounded with a netting to prevent boarding; ſupported moreover by a ſmall battery, and a large body of infantry from the ſhore. Three of the brave aſſailants were ſlain outright, and Lieutenant Stupart, with nine others, much wounded; one of them died the next morning. This attack was made in the face of day, by forty-two men, in three boats, againſt a veſſel ſecured with net-work to prevent boarding, with 113 men, ſupported by a battery, and a body of men at ſmall arms, on ſhore. Lieutenant Facey was the firſt man that boarded the veſſel, and ſet ſo noble an example to the reſt engaged, that all, both officers and men, behaved moſt gallantly.

Captain Young, of the Ethalion, with Captain Cockburn, of the Minerva, under his command, on the 10th of June, in the morning, ſaw a number of veſſels ſtanding into Palmay-Bay, with a light wind at eaſt. The Ethalion being becalmed, Captain Young ordered the boats out under the command of Lieutenants Plyn and Jerancy. After a long row in the boats they took poſſeſſion of two brigs and five tartans, from Barcelona, laden with wheat and ſheep, for Majorca. The Emerald and Minerva alſo took, off the ſouth-eaſt end of Sardinia, Le Caroline French ſhip privateer, of 16 guns, and ninety men. The ſquadron under Lord Kieth, captured five French veſſels on the evening of June 19th. Captain Markham, of the Centaur, being moſt advanced, came up with, and obliged three frigates to ſubmit. His Majeſty's ſhips Bellona and St. Tereſa, being neareſt when the two ſternmoſt frigates ſtruck, Captain Markham made their ſignals to take poſſeſſion of them, while he chaced the third, which ſtruck in an hour afterward. In the mean time, the Emerald took the brig Salamine, and the Alert was taken by the Captain. Theſe ſhips compoſed a ſquadron, commanded by Rear-admiral Pierre, thirty-three days from Jaffa

Jaffa, bound to Toulon, conſiſting of the Admiral's ſhip, mounting 40 guns, eighteen-pounders, with 500 men; La Courageux, of 22 guns, twelve-pounders, and 300 men; L'Alceſte, 36 guns, twelve-pounders, and 300 men; the brig Salamine, of 18 guns, and 120 men; the brig Alert, of 14 guns, and 120 men.

Captain Gore, of the Terpſichore, early on the morning of June 23d, chaced a Spaniſh zebec and an armed brig. The brig he captured, ſhe having carried away her main-top-maſt in the chace. She had 14 braſs guns, and was manned with ſeventy men; had ſailed the day before from Malaga in company with the zebec. Sir Hyde Parker alſo tranſmitted a liſt of eighteen French and Spaniſh veſſels taken, and two deſtroyed, by different ſhips of his ſquadron, ſtationed at Jamaica, in an account brought up to June 1ſt.

His Majeſty's ſloop the Kite, brought into Leith a French privateer, mounting 14 guns, with a crew of ſixty men, which ſhe captured on her return with a convoy from Elſineur, on the 20th of May.

Lord Robert Mark Ker, in his Majeſty's ſhip the Cormorant, chaced and brought to a Spaniſh brig of war called the Vinceſo, of eighteen guns, ſix-pounders, on her main-deck, ſix braſs four-pounders on the quarter-deck, and two on her forecaſtle, which veſſel he captured, and found 140 men on board. She had thrown ſix of her guns overboard during the chace.

On the evening of May 30th, Captain Twyſden, of his Majeſty's ſhip La Revolutionaire, after a chace of eight hours, came up with and captured La Victoire French privateer, of 16 guns, and 150 men, out nine days from Bayonne, fitted for a three-months cruize, but had not taken any thing; a fine new veſſel, and ſailed remarkably well.

Captain Curzon, of the Indefatigable, on the 31ſt of May, fell in with and took the French privateer La Venus, of 12 guns, and 101 men, out nine weeks from Rochfort. She had captured the ſchooner Clarence, from

from Liſbon, bound to London, and a ſhip from the ſame port laden with ſalt for Hamburgh.

Captain Luchear, of the cutter Reſolution, on the 25th of May, captured the French privateer La Vigie, of 14 guns, and ſeventy-one men, belonging to Bourdeaux, but laſt from Corunna, which ſhe had left eight days before, and had made no captures. This veſſel being quite new and coppered, had been fitted out for a three-months cruize.

Captain Hammond, of his Majeſty's ſhip Champion, on the morning of June 26th, being off Dungeneſs, obſerved a brig boarding two merchant veſſels, and after a chace of three days and two nights, had the ſatisfaction of ſecuring the trade from her depredations, when ſhe proved to be the Amazon French privateer, belonging to Dunkirk, of 16 guns, and 125 men, ſeventy-four of whom had been diſtributed in prizes which ſhe had taken that cruize. Being coppered, and a fleet ſailer, the Captain thought her very fit for his Majeſty's ſervice, and was happy to reflect that his perſeverance in the chace had ſecured her, as ſhe had greatly ſucceeded in annoyance of the trade, by captures of merchant veſſels.

A letter from Vice-admiral Lord Keith, commandant of his Majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in the Mediterranean, ſays—In juſtice to the intrepid behavious of Lieutenant Bainbridge, I cannot reſiſt reporting, that laſt evening an Engliſh cutter (the Lady Nelſon) was ſeen off Cabretta point, ſurrounded by French privateers and gunboats, all firing. I ordered the boats from the Queen Charlotte and Emerald to row towards the enemy, in hopes it might encourage the cutter to reſiſt until ſhe could get under our guns; but ſhe had been boarded and taken in tow by two of the French privateers; in which ſituation, Lieutenant Bainbridge, in the Queen Charlotte's barge, with ſixteen men, ran along ſide the cutter, and, after a ſharp conflict, carried her, taking ſeven officers, and twenty-ſeven men, priſoners; ſix or ſeven more were killed or knocked overboard in the ſcuffle,

ſcuffle.—Had not the darkneſs of the night prevented the boats acting in concert, all the privateers would have been taken.

A letter from Sir Hyde Parker, commander in chief of his Majeſty's ſhips and veſſels at Jamaica, gives the following account.——I have a peculiar ſatisfaction in communicating to you, that his Majeſty's late ſhip, Hermoine, is again reſtored to his navy, by as gallant an enterprize as is to be found in our naval annals, under the command of Captain Hamilton himſelf, with the boats of the Surprize only.—The Admiral then tranſmits Captain Hamilton's letter, which as it contains a diſplay of extraordinary valour, we ſhall preſume to give a copy of it as follows.

Jamaica, November 1ſt, 1799.

Sir,—The honour of my country, and the glory of the Britiſh navy, were ſtrong inducements for me to make an attempt to cut out, by the boats of his Majeſty's ſhip under my command, his Majeſty's late ſhip Hermoine, from the harbour of Porto-Cavallo, where there are about 200 pieces of cannon mounted on the batteries. Having well obſerved her ſituation on the 22d and 23d ult. and the evening of the 24th, being favourable, I turned the hands up, to acquaint the officers and ſhip's company with my intentions to lead them to the attack, which was handſomely returned with three cheers, and they would all follow me to a man; this greatly encreaſed my hopes, and I had little doubt of ſucceeding: the boats containing 100 men, including officers, at one in the morning of the 25th (after having beat the launch of the ſhip, which carried a twenty-four pounder and twenty men, and having received ſeveral guns and ſmall arms from the frigate), boarded; the foreca ſtle was taken poſſeſſion of without much reſiſtance; the quarter-deck diſputed the point a quarter of an hour, where a dreadful carnage took place; the main-deck held out much longer, and with proportionable ſlaughter; nor was it before

before both cables were cut, ſail made on the ſhip, and boats a-head to tow, that the main-deck could be called ours; they laſt of all retreated to 'tween-decks, and continued reſolutely firing, till all their ammunition was expended; then, and not till then, did they call out for quarter. At two o'clock the Hermoine was completely ours, being out of gun-ſhot from the fort, which had for ſome time kept up a tolerably good fire. From the Captain, Don Romond de Chalas, I am informed ſhe was nearly ready for ſea, mounting 44 guns, with 321 men, fifty-ſix ſoldiers, and fifteen artillerymen on board.

As the frigate was the particular object of your orders, I thought proper to return with, and ſecure her in the port.

E. HAMILTON.

Killed on board the Hermoine 119; dangerouſly wounded ninety-ſeven.

Another letter from Admiral Parker to the Admiralty, informs their Lordſhips of his Majeſty's ſhips the Alarm and the Amphion having taken a very rich and valuable Spaniſh ſhip, carrying 18 guns, manned with 180 men, from Cadiz to La Vera Cruz, named the Aſturiana, with a great number of veſſels, many richly loaden, taken by his Majeſty's cruizers.

END OF THE SECOND VOLUME.

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